WORK FOR YOUR HAPPINESS

Theoretical and empirical study defining and measuring happiness at work

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There are vast changes in the work environment, and the traditional rules and management methods might not be suitable for today's employees anymore. The meaning of work is also changing due to the younger and higher educated generations entering the markets. Old customs need to be re-validated and new approaches should be taken into use. This paper strongly emphasizes the importance of happiness research and happiness at work. The values towards the meaning of work are changing; people demand happiness and quality from all aspects of their lives.

The aim of this study is to define happiness - especially at work - and to explain how it can be measured and what kind of results achieved. I also want to find out how the contents of work and the working environment might enhance happiness. The correlation between education and happiness is discussed and examined. I am aware that the findings and theories are concentrating mainly on Western Countries and highlighting the values and work-environments of those societies.

The main aim of the empirical study is to find out if there are connections between happiness and work in data collected by World Value Survey in 2005, and if the profession has effects on happiness. Other factors such as the correlation of age, sex, education and income are examined too. I also want to find out what kind of values people have towards work and how these affect the happiness levels. The focus is on two nations: Finland (N=1014) and Italy (N=1012). I have also taken the global comparison within, that is all 54 countries (N=66,566) included in the 5th wave (during the years 2005 -2008) of the World Value Survey.

The results suggest that people are generally happy around the world; happiness decreasing with the age, the educated being happier than the uneducated and the employed happier than the unemployed. People working in neat "white collar" jobs are more likely happier than those working in factories or outdoors. Money makes us happier, until certain level is reached. Work is important to people and the importance of work adds happiness. Work is also highly appreciated, but there are more happy people among those who do not appreciate work that highly. Safety matters the most when looking for a job, and there are more happy people among those who have selected the importance of work as the first choice when looking for a job, than among those to whom an income is the most important aspect. People are more likely happy when the quality of work is high, that is when their job consists of creative and cognitive tasks and when they have a feeling of independence.

Keywords: happiness at work, subjective well-being, measuring happiness, happiness economics, World Value Survey, global study

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Työmaailmassa on tapahtunut valtavasti muutoksia, eivätkä perinteiset käytänteet ja johtamismetodit välttämättä ole enää sopivia tämän hetken työpaikoille. Myös työn merkitys on muuttunut uuden, korkeasti koulutetun sukupolven myötä. Vanhat tavat tulisi arvioida uudelleen ja uudet käytänteet ottaa huomioon. Tämä tutkielma korostaa onnellisuuden tärkeyttä työssä. Työhön kohdistuvat arvot ovat muuttumassa ja ihmiset kaipaat onnellisuutta kaikilla elämän aloilla.

Tutkimuksen tavoitteena on määrittää onnellisuus – erityisesti työssä – ja kartoittaa miten sitä voidaan mitata ja minkälaisia tuloksia on saatu. Haluan myös selvittää kuinka työn sisältö ja työympäristö vaikuttavat onnellisuuteen. Myös koulutuksen ja onnellisuuden välistä yhteyttä tarkastellaan. Olen tietoinen siitä, että teoriat ja löydöt perustuvat länsimaisiin näkemyksiin ja arvoihin.

Empiirisessä osiossa haetaan yhteyttä onnellisuuden ja työn välillä World Value Surveyn vuonna 2005 keräämästä datasta. Ammatin, iän, sukupuolen, koulutuksen ja tulojen yhteyttä onnellisuuteen tarkastellaan myös. Haluan lisäksi selvittää minkälaisia arvostuksia ihmisillä on työtä kohtaan ja kuinka ne vaikuttavat onnellisuuteen. Tarkastelen kahta maata: Suomea (N=1014) ja Italiaa (N=1012). Myös kaikki 54 maata (N=66 566), jotka olivat mukana viidennessä tutkimuksessa vuosina 2005-2008, ovat mukana kansainvälisessä vertailussa.

Tulosten mukaan ihmiset ovat melko onnellisia ympäri maailmaa; onnellisuuden vähentyessä iän myötä, koulutuksen lisätessä onnellisuutta ja työssäkäyvien ollessa onnellisempia kuin työttömien. Siistissä toimistotyössä oleva on todennäköisemmin onnellinen kuin tehdas- tai ulkotyöläinen. Raha tekee meistä onnellisempia tiettyyn rajaan asti. Työ on tärkeää ihmiselle ja tärkeys lisää onnellisuutta. Työllä on myös korkea arvostus, mutta ihmiset ovat todennäköisemmin onnellisia, kun he eivät arvota työtä kovin korkealle. Turvallisuus on tärkeintä työtä haettaessa, ja ihmiset ovat onnellisimpia kun työn sisältö on heille tärkeämpää kuin tulot. Työn laatu vaikuttaa onnellisuuteen: ihmiset ovat todennäköisesti onnellisempia kun heidän työtehtävänsä ovat monipuolisia ja vaativat luovuutta, sekä kun he kokevat itsenäisyyttä työssään.

Avainsanat: onnellisuus työssä, subjektiivinen hyvinvointi, onnellisuuden mittaaminen, onnellisuus taloustieteissä, World Value Survey, kansainvälinen tutkimus

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1 Introduction

I have conquered Kilimanjaro, the highest mountain in Africa. Reaching the peak at the altitude of almost 6000 meters in the early hours of the day was purely horrible. I was feeling nauseous and after "the conquering picture" was taken, I vomited. During the night of the final climb I was in a lot of pain and sure of dying, so the experience was very unpleasant in many ways. However, I was able to feel pure happiness and success the day after the event. I still think it was one of my greatest achievements and I am extremely happy I made it. This is what fascinates me about happiness: it might not demand smiles and pleasure - it might require investing effort and hard work too. Therefore, defining happiness can be a challenging task, as must be measuring it, too.

Happiness has become a popular topic during the decent decades. TV-shows of happiness are popular, self-help books are published and widely sold, universities teach happiness studies, vast happiness databases are created, thousands of articles are published, titles of *happiness professor* and *chief happiness officer* are given, global happiness conferences are held and new "sciences" are established around the topic. To add reliability in the science world, there is a scientific journal devoted only to subjective well being, called *Journal of Happiness Studies*. Also an international research society *International Society for Quality-of-Life Studies* promotes and encourages research in the field. This movement does not stay only on the academic side, but companies are encouraged to pursuit happiness at work places and even the government policies and economics are forced to consider the needs of happiness in their actions and procedures. (Hirvonen & Mangeloja 2005, 5; Ojanen 2009, 12; Salerno 2010, 52.)

There are vast changes in the work environment, and the traditional rules and management methods might not be suitable for today's employees anymore. Also the meaning of work is in the wind of change due to the younger and higher educated generations, who do not value work in the same way as their ancestors (Manka 2011, 27). Economy is said to be in a transformation from money economy to satisfaction economy and this, most likely, will

have its impact on the expectations of work (Seligman 2003, 165). Old customs need to be re-validated and new approaches should be taken into use.

The growth of happiness studies in the field of work satisfaction shows that people are reconsidering their values toward work. It is not only the values we need to take into consideration, but also the endurance on the path to the retirement. In Finland we have already signs of a younger generation not having much trust in being able to stay at work for a long time. According to Heikkilä-Tammi, Nuutinen, Manka & Mäenpää (2011, 58) one out of eight of 18–29-year-old employees believe that after two years, they will not be fit to work. Also the number of disability pensions of under 35 year olds has increased by 40 per cent from the year 2003 to 2008, and the mean age of the employees entering the disability pension was 52 years in 2008. According to the Finnish insurance company Varma, the figures are not so alarming this year and improvements have been detected. However, their study also shows that the most crucial threat to employees' ability to work is the contents of work itself, not so much the work community or other aspects (Varma 2012).

Burnout, dissatisfaction, depression, lousy management and early retirement wishes are vastly spoken of in publications and other media. In Finland, Juha Siltala's book on work becoming more miserable has got a lot of attention, and it is only one of many. Should we talk about unhappiness instead of happiness then? Complaints breed more complaints and the vicious circle is ready. Therefore positive topics and happiness also need space in the field of work research. For years, psychology has had its focus point on the problems of people. Happiness, joy and love have had much less interest and research (Ojanen 2009, 11).

The research in the field is still rather young, but there are already big names and important scholars, whose work I intend to investigate within the following chapters. To mention but a few, Martin Seligman is the so-called father of positive psychology and the professor of positive psychology at the University of Pennsylvania. Richard Layard is a British economist, a program director of the Well-being program at the London School of Economics and well-known for his studies stated as happiness economics. Daniel Kahneman is a Nobel laureate in Economics (though being a psychologist) for his work in

the prospect theory and the emeritus professor of psychology and public affairs at Princeton University. Bruno S. Frey is a professor of economics at the University of Zurich and is often cited for his happiness research in economics. Ruut Veenhoven is the emeritus-professor of social conditions for human happiness at the Erasmus University in Rotterdam, the director of the World Database of Happiness and the founding editor of the Journal of Happiness Studies. Derek Bok is an American lawyer and a former president of Harvard University, his latest research interest lies in the politics of happiness. In Finland, Marja-Liisa Manka, the professor of School of Economics at the University of Tampere, and Markku Ojanen, the emeritus-professor of psychology at the same university, are both known for their research and lecturing on happiness studies, Manka especially concentrating on the happiness at work. This namedropping indicates that happiness has got the interest of remarkable scientists around the world.

The aim of this study is to define happiness (especially at work) and to know how it can be measured and what kind of results achieved. I also want to find out how the contents of work and the working environment might enhance happiness. Also the correlation between education and happiness is discussed and examined. The field of work is enormous, still I do not separate the different groups but discuss work in general. However, slight concentration on professional jobs and educated people's work can be detected. The focus is also only on employees. Self-employees are their own group and they do require another study. Neither is unpaid work, such as volunteering, included in this study. I am aware that the findings and theories are concentrating mainly on Western Countries and highlighting the values and work-environments of those societies.

In this study I will first concentrate on happiness and measuring it. The next chapter is about possible impacts of happiness on politics and economics. The third chapter focuses on the aspects that bring happiness to work. The fourth chapter is the empirical part of the thesis. In conclusions I will compare the theory and the results of the research and conclude the findings of the thesis.

2 Happiness and how to measure it?

What is happiness? It depends on whom you ask. According to neuroscience, happiness physically happens on the left side of our brain right behind the forehead. That is where we experience good feelings, and if something damages that part of the brain, we get depressed. The electrical activities can be read by electrocodes e.g. in the situations where people are given pleasant and unpleasant pictures to see or flavours to taste. (Kahneman & Krueger, 2006, 7; Layard 2005, 11, 18; Manka 2011, 170.) Among neuroscientists there are two other disciplines with a distinct interest on happiness: psychologists and economists. The psychologists want to understand the feeling and the economists want to know what people value. (Gilbert 2012, 85.)

Happiness can mean many different things and there are plenty of terms and names for happiness: joy, meaningfulness, satisfaction, ecstasy, zest, eudaimonia, pleasure, and fulfilment (e.g. Seligman 2003, 62). Happiness can also be seen as a synonym for the quality of life or well-being (Veenhoven 2010, 607). In the science world the term *subjective well-being* is very much used (Salerno 2010, 52). D. Haybron (conference on Measures of Subjective Well-being for Public Policy 13.7.2012) uses the term *emotional well-being* when referring to happiness. However, to make it easier for the reader, I have decided to use the word happiness throughout the thesis to cover all these different terms. Hence my apologies for tautology.

The base for happiness studies was established in the 70's and 80's when Seligman promoted the term positive psychology (Manka 2011, 65). How does the positive psychology differ from ordinary psychology then? The positive psychology is based on the psychology of human potential (Potts 2011, 4). It is mainly a change of focus, from life threatening aspects to studying aspects that make life worth living (Seligman 2003, 266). The rise of positive psychology has affected the happiness studies greatly.

2.1 What is happiness?

What is happiness? How to define it? This is probably one of the oldest questions of human kind (Gilbert 2012, 85). The Oxford Dictionary (2010, 586) defines happiness as "to find/achieve true happiness", whereas in Longman's Dictionary (2005, 634) it stands for "the state of being happy". Being happy can be defined as a feeling of pleasure, a feeling that something is good or right, as being satisfied with something – not anxious, or about being lucky and successful (Longman 2005, 643; Oxford 2010, 586). One way of describing happiness can be found in Wikipedia, which defines happiness as "an emotional state that is characterized by feelings of enjoyment, pleasure, and satisfaction".

According to Martin Seligman (2003), the founder of positive psychology, happiness in the present is a combination of satisfaction about the past and optimism about the future. He embraces both positive feelings and positive activities, explaining that sometimes happiness does refer to activities without anything felt, e.g. absorption or engagement. (Seligman 2003, 261.) For Bentham (1789), happiness is a psychological experience and "the sum of pleasures and pains". Freud (1929) linked happiness with primitive urges, as an orgasmic experience. Diener (1997) defines happiness as being satisfied with life while feeling good, whereas Sumner (1996) sees it as a positive attitude towards life. According to Veenhoven (2010) happiness is a mixture of hedonic level of affect and contentment, hedonic level referring to various affects reflecting on one's mood and contentment referring to the level we meet the aspirations for life. He also calls it the "overall enjoyment of one's life as-a-whole". (Veenhoven 2010, 606, 610.) In this study, I have chosen to use Diener's definition of happiness as a feeling of satisfaction in life while feeling good.

Veenhoven (2010) divides happiness into four qualities of life: livability of the environment, life-ability of the person, utility of life and satisfaction with life. Livability of the environment refers to good living conditions, something that economists call welfare. Life-ability of the person tells how equipped individuals are with dealing problems, sometimes called as a person's adaptive-potential or health. The utility of life presumes higher values and meanings for life, for being good for something more than itself, such as cultural development or ecological preservation. The fourth corner of happiness is

satisfaction with life, deferring to subjective appreciation of life according to the eye of the beholder. (Veenhoven 2010, 608.)

Frey and Stutzer (2000) see three possible sources for happiness: personality and demographic factors, micro- and macroeconomic factors and institutional factors. Personality and demographic factors include variables mentioned below in Blanchflower's table. The variables in micro- and macroeconomics are income per capita, employment and inflation. The greatest institutional factors are democracy and federalism. (Frey & Stutzer 2000, 919-920.)

Graham, Eggers and Sukhtankar (2004) believe there are different elements of happiness, which are subject to changes and fluctuations. Some of these elements are up to the personality and behaviour, whereas some are subject to socioeconomic and demographic variables. (Graham et al. 2004, 340.) Rao (2010, 75) argues that happiness is part of our very nature, inherent in us.

Layard, Clark and Senik (2012) divide happiness into factors very similarly too. They believe that our genes and environment together make us who we are and determine the main features in our lives. These features can be divided into external and personal features, which lead into happiness or misery, as figure 1 shows.
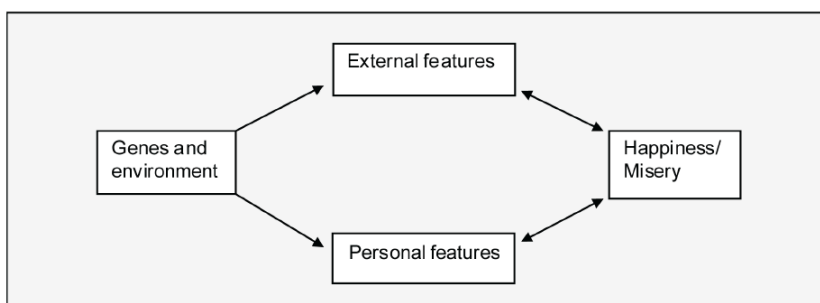
Figure 1 Happiness features according to Layard et al. (2012, 59)

The external features are work, income, community and governance, values and religion. Personal features are mental and physical health, family experience, education, gender and age. These are all key determinants of happiness. (Layard et al. 2012, 59.)

A group of psychologists (Lewin 1951; Seeman 1967) have divided the sources of happiness into nine domains of life, which mostly include the ones listed by Layard et al. However, they have separated love life from family life and listed leisure time individually distinct from work. Community and governance are united as residential life. (Sirgy & Wu 2009, 188.) All these factors, features, domains and elements prove that happiness can be influenced by a mixture of several aspects, this research focusing on happiness in the domain of work life.

Blanchflower (2008) has listed the aspects bringing happiness and unhappiness into Western lives as follows:

Table 1 Aspects bringing happiness and unhappiness by Blanchflover (2008, 7)

Happiness is higher among:	Happiness is lower among:
Women	Newly divorced and separated people
Married people	Adults in their mid to late 40s
The highly educated	The unemployed
Active involvement in religion	Immigrants and minorities
The healthy	Those in poor health
Those with high income	Commuters
The young and the old – U-shaped in age	People with high blood pressure
The self-employed	The less educated
People with low blood pressure	The poor
The sexually active and especially those who have sex at least once a week	The sexually inactive
Those with one sex partner	Those with children
Those without children	

In Ojanen's (2009) research on the barometer of happiness in Finland, the results were very similar to Blanchflower's. Those living in a relationship were happier than people living alone or as a one-single parent. People earning less than 1000 euros per month were less happy than those with a better income. The unemployed were unhappier, whereas people in a management position happier than average. Education had a connection to happiness, the respondents were happier the more educated they were. However, sex, age or location made no difference in Ojanen's research. (Ojanen 2009, 29.)

Gilbert (2012) warns us from using too "fat brush when painting the portrait of happiness". For example: research showing people being less happy with children, might not measure the fulfilment they feel compared to people without children. We cannot say that people

without children are happier, since each group mentioned above is "happier in some ways and less happy in others". (Gilbert 2012, 90.)

Layard (2005) points out three key facts about human nature and happiness. First he claims that human wants are always heavily dependent on what other people have. We want to keep up with other people and compare our lives to theirs. (Layard 2005, 7.) Education, background, media and work environment also have a great influence on what we think we should want and have. We are group-animals and on seek for social respect (Veenhoven 2010, 623). Layard calls this a *status race*, which always leads to winners and losers. The second key fact is that people want security. They hate unemployment and since they cannot have a full control on keeping their jobs, they are unsecure, which affects their happiness. The third key fact is that people want to trust and to be trusted. Mobility and anonymity make it much harder these days. (Layard 2005, 7-8.)

Happiness has a very important function. It is not just about making us feel good, but it is there to keep us alive too. Very often the things that make us happy are also good for our survival (such as food, love and friendship). So by looking for things that make us happy, we also secure our species survival. (Layard 2005, 24.) However, Seligman (2003, 31) reminds negative emotions being the defence mechanism against threats. Both feelings are needed to survive.

There are many lists of how to become happy and what the right ways to happiness are. It is worth remembering though that the focus on happiness studies is still rather new and the urge to look for the pure and all-winning happiness is quite recent. Therefore there are also many possible sources of happiness still undiscovered (Bok 2010, 40).

2.2 The world map of happiness

How happy are people in general? Are people happier in the wealthier west or the warm south? The World Values Survey (henceforth WVS) has measured the happiness around the world since 1990. It is a worldwide investigation of sociocultural and political change,

conducted by a network of social scientists studying changing values and their impact on social and political life. In the surveys happiness has been measured by asking a question "Taking all things together, would you say you are 1) very happy 2) quite happy 3) not very happy 4) not at all happy?". (WVS, n.d..)

By using the data from WVS, an analyzing and consulting firm ASEP/JDS has constructed a world map of happiness. According to this map the world population is in general quite happy, despite some Latin American and Eastern European countries and Russia. The happiness in the surveyed countries means that at least the majority of the population is happy or fairly happy. The same goes with the unhappiness in the countries. The level of happiness is measured using the 'Happiness Index'. This index ranges from 0 to 200, the happiest countries tending to 200 and the less happy countries to 0. 100 is the equilibrium point, and countries with indexes around 100 have a similar rate of persons quite or very happy and persons not very or not at all happy. (WVS, n.d..)

As the map shows (figure 2), happiness has not been measured in every part of the globe, or the access to research does not exist. The most of Africa shows gray in the map, therefore the overall happiness including all the countries in the world cannot be declared. Generalization on some level can, however, be made.
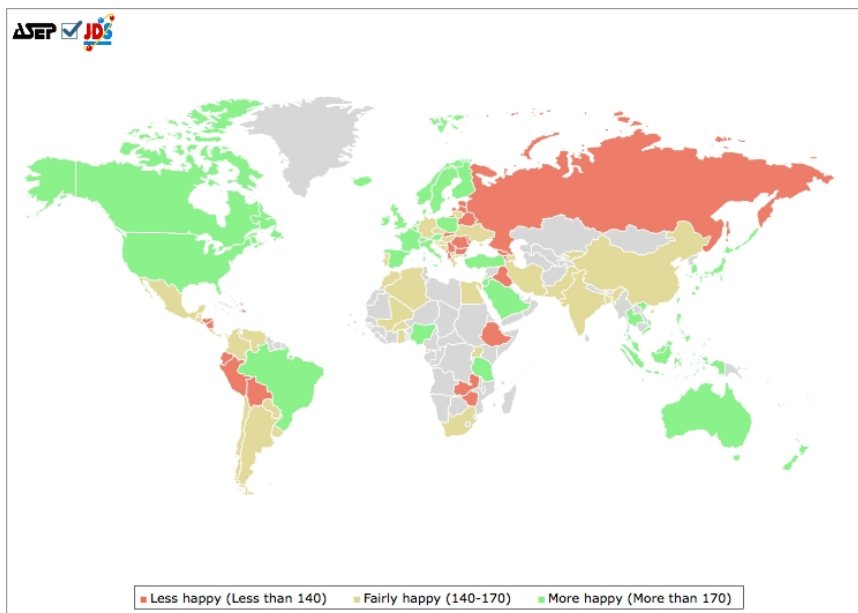
Figure 2 Map of happiness (WVS)

The WVS is not the only database collecting data of happiness and other values. The World Database of Happiness (henceforth WDH) is an on-going register of scientific research on the subjective enjoyment of life. It concentrates on happiness, and according to their studies Denmark and Switzerland belong to the happiest countries in the world, whereas Zimbabwe and Angola are among the unhappiest countries. (Veenhoven, n.d..)

In figure 3 are some of the happiest and unhappiest nations in the world in 2006. The countries are listed by the average scores on scale 0-10, and more countries can be found on the database. There are some differences between the map and this table, such as Mexico being among fairly happy countries in the map and among the happiest countries according to WDF. Therefore knowing the research questions and used methods is important in order to compare these results.

Denmark 8,4   Switzerland 8,1   Mexico 8,0   Sweden 7,7   Canada 7,6   UK 7,2   USA 7,0   Indonesia 6,6   Japan 6,2   China 6,0   India 5,9   Russia 5,4   Iraq 4,3   Zimbabwe 3,2

Figure 3 Life-satisfaction in nations around 2006 (Veenhoven)

The Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) has also investigated well-being across countries based on eleven topics: housing, income, jobs, community, education, environment, governance, health, life-satisfaction, safety and work-life balance (figure 4). The research covers the 34 OECD-countries, so the results tell us about happiness in those countries only. They do not want to assign rankings to different countries, but it is easily investigated on their websites. (OECD, n.d..) According to this index Australia and Canada rank the highest, Turkey and Mexico the lowest. Among the ten best-ranked countries are Norway, Sweden, Finland, New Zealand, Denmark, the United States, Switzerland and the Netherlands. (OECD, n.d.)
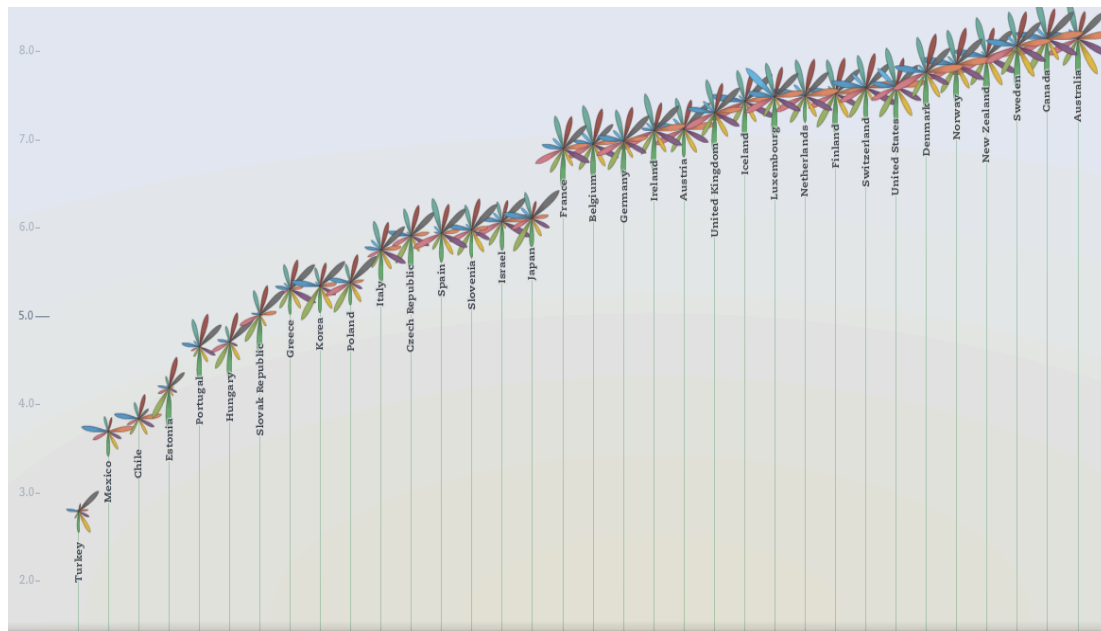
Figure 4 Better life index (OECD)

Once again, if we compere the results of these three sources, there is a great difference in rankings. Canada appears among the happiest in all rankings, but Mexico's rank is very irregular. Explanation for this is most likely that different questions have been asked and the aspects are valued diversely. Also different methods have most likely been used. Still the diverse results might confuse the reader. This and other problems in measuring happiness are discussed later in this chapter.

So the studies show different results and strong conclusions about differences on happiness levels between e.g. the north and the south cannot be drawn. According to Veenhoven (2010b) the conditions for happiness are quite similar around the world and so are the consequences of enjoying life too; what differs are the values towards happiness. How desired happiness in a certain country is influences the answers given in happiness surveys. This is called desirability bias and it can affect either negatively or positively to the awareness and responses. Veenhoven (1984) takes the United States as an example and suspects that the results of happiness studies might be biased positively due to the "grin and bear it- philosophy being typical of the American way of life". According to his studies the high happiness levels can be detected also in Scandinavia, despite it not being "reputed to require false cheerfulness". Veenhoven claims that we should first of all establish how happiness is valued in different regions and only after then start comparing or explaining

happiness levels. (Veenhoven 1984, 144.) Uchida, Morasakkunkit and Kitayama (2004, 224) strongly argue that emotions are always embedded in specific cultural contexts. Therefore happiness is also saturated with cultural meanings.

There is quite a lot of research on different happiness values between East and West (see Lu & Gilmour 2004; Lu, Gilmour & Kao 2001; Uchida et al 2004) and barely nothing between North and South. Since this study focuses more on European values and has the North-South-positioning, I will only briefly discuss the differences between East and West.

Veenhoven points out the differences in valuing happiness above, and his thoughts are supported by Uchida et al. (2004). They see a great difference in how positive and negative feelings are valued in European-American cultures compared to East Asian cultures (especially China and Japan). In the first positivity and negativity are seen as contradictory and in the latter as complementary. This has a strong influence on how happiness is seen and how it is affected by feelings. Also the person's position in happiness matters greatly. In European-American cultures happiness is about independence, autonomy and choices made by each self, highly concentrating on personal achievements. Whereas in East-Asian cultures happiness highly depends on positive social relationships, and personal happiness is often seen as a threat to social relationships. For them happiness is more based on "self-in-relationship-with-others" than self-in-the-center-of-everything-mode as in European-American cultures. (Uchida et al. 2004, 224-226, 229.) Therefore it is worth questioning enhancing personal happiness as the ultimate goal for happiness for all. Suh and Koo (2008, 422) remind that e.g. in South-Asian societies happiness is about maintaining the collective harmony and order, and seeking for personal happiness is the goal mainly in contemporary Western cultures.

Happiness is surely culture-dependent. However, it is worth noting that cultures do change and so do values. The world is very global nowadays and due to the Internet and increase in travelling, there aren't many cultures unaware of values different to their own. Lu and Gilman (2004) call this "the time of cultural fusion" and argue that due to the asymmetry in the cross-cultural impact, Western values are more aggressively influencing other cultures. Therefore the representatives of Eastern cultures are more likely to "subscribe to both

individual and socially oriented conceptions of SWB" (i.e. subjective well-being). (Lu & Gilman 2004, 272.)

What seems to be lacking from most of the happiness studies I have come across (except those recently mentioned), are the cultural effects on happiness. Most of the international studies do decompose the variables into specific and measurable contents, such as the wealth of the nation, educational levels, growth of wealth, economic equality and political freedom, but they fail in discussing the softer dimensions, the real cultural effects that are not always easy to see, predict or list. As Haller and Hadler (2006, 193) explain the typical division in their global happiness study: "the culture effects on happiness are difficult to interpret". This is likely the reason why e.g. OECD in the Better life index has listed mainly those aspects that are easy to measure.

A research project called the Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE) has focused on inter-relationships between societal culture and organizational culture since 1993. Around 200 social scientists and scholars from 61 cultures are engaged in this multi-phase and method research project. They have indicted nine dimensions of culture, which they call *culture construct definitions*. These are power distance, uncertainty avoidance, collectivism I and II, gender egalitarianism, assertiveness, future orientation, performance orientation and humane orientation. (GLOBE, n.d.) Few of these can easily be detected as Geert Hofstede's dimensions of culture (see Hofstede 2001). Naturally there are many other, but rather similar, dimensions too, e.g. by Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (see Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner 2004). However, these cultural dimensions are seldom mentioned in happiness studies. It is true that there is still only a little research on happiness at work, but in cross-cultural comparisons these cultural definitions should be noted and examined. House, Javidan and Drofman (2001, 492) note about GLOBE, that "it is to develop an empirically-based theory to describe, understand and predict the impact of specific cultural variables on leadership and organizational processes and the effectiveness of these processes". Maybe the theories they have created could also be used in the search of global happiness at work. Some other cultural differences are discussed in the chapter 2.4.

2.3 Measuring happiness

Happiness is typically measured by asking people how happy or unhappy they are. This is called a retrospective evaluation (Bok 2010, 34). The questions on happiness can be posed in various contexts: clinical interviews, life-review questionnaires and survey interviews. The questions can also be posed in different ways: directly or indirectly, and by means of single or multiple questions. (Veenhoven 2010, 611.) Also longitudinal research is used in happiness research, it allows following up the changes within time and to see how certain changes affect the investigated aspect (see Hirsijärvi, Remes & Sajavaara 2004, 167).

A typical way to measure happiness is by self-report surveys, where the subject is given a question and asked to answer by using a numerical scale (Kalmijn & Veenhoven 2005, 360). A simple example is a question "Considering your life at the moment, how happy or unhappy are you?" The responder then needs to choose a figure on a 10-step scale, 1 meaning unhappy and 10 happy. 10 steps give the respondent a possibility to choose from many options and to give certain numbers the value of his/her happiness. (Veenhoven 2010, 611.)

> "Considering you life at the moment, how happy or unhappy are you?"
> 1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10
> Unhappy   Happy

This scale can also be turned vertically, forming a ladder. Respondents are asked to evaluate their happiness on an 11-point ladder scale from 0 to 10, 0-ladder refining to the worst possible life and 10th to the best possible. This is also called the Cantril ladder and is used by the Gallup World Poll. (Sachs 2012, 11.) D. Haybron (conference on Measures of Subjective Well-being for Public Policy 13.7.2012) however wonders if we really climb steps on the way to happiness. Are there ladders of love or ladders of friendship to climb too? A ladder refers towards a goal to achieve, and a discussion on its use in measuring happiness is justified.

Verbal scales are often used too, and there is a great variety of them. The numerical scale is changed into certain words, the responder can choose from (Kalmijn & Veenhoven 2005,

360). Using the sample question above, a verbal scale can be " extremely unhappy", "not too happy", "quite happy", "happy" and "extremely happy". Then the responder can consider the prevailing happiness and give it a verbal value. The 10-step scale can also be verbally explained. Saligman (2003, 15) goes even further and not only defines e.g. step 6. as slightly happy, but also adds "just a bit above normal", step 2. being pretty unhappy and "somewhat blue, spirits down".

Happiness can be measured by using negative and positive adjectives or feelings. The adjectives can e.g. be excited (positive), guilty (negative), inspired (positive), nervous (negative) and so on. Then on the scale 1-5, 1 standing for *very slightly or not at all* and 5 for *extremely,* respondent grades the affects according to the present feelings – how one is feeling right now. (Seligman 2003, 33.)

The scale 1-5 (or 7) might also indicate agreement or disagreement, 1 for disagree and 5 to agree. Different statements can them be presented and the respondent indicates agreements with appropriate numbers. (Seligman 2003, 63.) Statements can be e.g.

My work is close to ideal.	1	2	3	4	5
I am completely satisfied with my work.	1	2	3	4	5

One way to measure happiness is by considering the percentage of the time feeling happy and unhappy. 100 per cent are to be divided between three questions: On average, what percentage of the time do you feel unhappy, what percentage of the time do you feel neutral and what percentage of the time do you feel happy? (Seligman 2003, 15.)

Sometimes the questions concern the preceding day. The researcher asks what happened on that day and how the responder felt during certain activities. This is called the day-reconstruction method (Bok 2010, 32). Respondents are often asked to write a journal of the day and include the beginning and the end of each episode, and whom they intervene with (Kahneman & Krueger, 2006, 10). It is important in this approach that the incidents are very recent, since it relies completely on memory.

Is it also possible to rate the happiness on a pictorial scale (Kalmijn & Veenhoven 2005, 360). This is often used in restaurants and hotels where customers can leave feedback of their service experiences. Smilies are probably the most well know example of a pictorial scale.

Figure 5 Rating happiness with smilies

Regardless of the scale, respondents do choose from limited options. Their choice are given the same value, as somebody else's chosen the same option. There might be happiness differences in people's lives and therefore in their answers, but it is impossible for the researcher to know that and the answers are valued similarly. (Kalmijn & Veenhoven 2005, 360.)

Measuring happiness at work can be divided into situation-oriented and individual-oriented theories. The situation-oriented theory focuses on factors and occasions at work beyond the individual, such as what kind of processes create happiness, how communication and giving feedback are organised, and how people behave in groups reflecting happiness. The situation-oriented research searches for a model to potentiate the happiness in different situations. The individual-oriented one focuses on the individual's attributions to the feeling of happiness. Those attributions are e.g. cognitive factors, manners and needs and individual capacities. To get the best results, both the situation-oriented and individual-oriented models are needed. (Varila & Viholainen 2000, 38, 39.)

To get as reliable and enlightening results as possible the research has often been conducted by using variable methods. Heikkilä-Tammi et al. (2011) have concentrated on leadership and its influence on well-being at work in their study. They have first directed a survey to participating organizations and then chosen both the management and employees for study group and individual interviews. The reason for this has been to deepen the understanding of the results, not just to get figures and facts, but also to find the values and characteristics of the well-being at work. The leaders (not managers, as they emphasize) and the

employees are participating, since they argue that both are responsible for the quality of the relationships and well-being at work. (Heikkilä-Tammi et al. 2011, 59.)

Varila and Viholainen (2000) approached the research topic by a narrative inquiry. Their research was qualitative and individual-oriented, since they wanted to trace those moments when individuals had experienced happiness at workplace. The purpose was to find out the factors enhancing and preventing happiness. The narrative method allowed the respondents to configure their own realities and did not force them to choose from given options. They were not constrained into certain moulds. There are downsizes in a narrative inquiry as well: it requires a certain ability to reach the reality and to express those thoughts in words; and complex situations are hard to remember unaffected. (Varila & Viholainen 2000, 39, 103.)

Queries are not the only way to measure happiness. It has also been measured in laboratories where the stimulus and the experience of an individual can be measured. Typical ways to measure happiness in labs are by playing music or showing films or pictures to the respondents. What is best achieved by these measurements is the real-time valuing, the so-called *experienced utility* compared to the *remembered utility*, which the typical happiness surveys often measure. The controllability and the measurability are also seen as the advantages of the laboratories measures. (Kahneman & Krueger, 2006, 5.) However, no matter how great data "using magnetic resonance imaging to measure cerebral blood flow or electromyography to measure the activity of the smiles muscles" gives us, those measures are often highly correlated and very expensive. (Gilbert 2012, 85-86.)

New technologies and social media have also been used at measuring happiness. There is a study that followed people's blog writings about work, and listed words and feelings related to happiness at work. Matt Killingsworth follows more than 15 000 people in 83 countires by iPhone asking several times a day what they are doing and how they feel. By tracking people for months and years, he wants not only to know who is happy, but when they are happy. This experience-sampling application is called Track Your Happiness and he believes to revolutionize the understanding of happiness. (Killingsworth 2012, 89.)

As shown above, there are many ways to measure happiness. Scientists have also investigated behavioural correlates and determinants of happiness. What still lacks of empirical research is the feeling itself and its meaning. (Kamvar, Mogilner & Aaker 2009, 4.) This is a one main problem with measuring happiness and also in gaining respect and credibility in the eyes of scientists. This and other problems are discussed in the next chapter.

2.4 The dilemmas of measuring happiness

Clark and Oswald (2002, 1140) highlight that by measuring happiness it is possible to predict future outcomes or behaviours, such as the length of life, the duration of unemployment, quitting a job and possibilities for heart diseases. So by measuring happiness we can see into the future and perhaps prevent certain things from happening and to pursuit good things. However, it is not necessarily easy to measure happiness and some aspects are needed to be taken into consideration when measuring happiness.

Do we really know what happiness is? If not, how can we measure it? This is the argument that happiness studies face relatively often. It is argued that the term "happiness" has no meaning in reality and therefore cannot be studied (Salerno 2010, 53). According to Veenhoven this is due to the lack of a professional interest group stressing the meaning (2010, 608). Measuring happiness is also said to be too subjective, hence it cannot be compared among individuals (Ojanen 2009, 19). Helliwell and Wang (2012) see this subjectivity as a strength, not a weakness. It allows a person to judge how s/he feels, ignoring governments' or professionals' judgments. After all, the most fundamental indicator of happiness is how a person sees *his/her* quality of life, isn't it? (Helliwell and Wang 2012, 21.) The term *subjective well-being* is therefore quite describing, it is recognized to be subjective, but generalization on a certain level is still possible. Gilbert (2012, 85) argues that measuring happiness can be compared to fitting glasses at an eye doctor: responding to the questions asked about different lenses you try. Then the doctor uses the reports of the subjective experience to design the lenses that will give a perfect vision. Nobody complains about data being too subjective there.

Can we compare our happiness to what other people are experiencing? Is happiness always there? Can we always say how happy we are? Layard (2005, 12) believes we can. He considers happiness as a temperature, which is always there whether we think of it or not. It fluctuates and we are able to rate it if we want to. We are also able to valuate other people's happiness or sorrow, comparing it to what we have experienced.

One challenge in this research field is that people value happiness differently. Happiness is not a verifiable experience or a known fact, such as age (Kahneman & Krueger, 2006, 6). When one sees it as a cheer moment, the other looks at it as an outlook on life. For some happiness is an escapade, whereas the others value a peaceful and long-lasting euphoria. As people get older, they tend to think of happiness as something peaceful. They normally associate the word happy to low-arousal words such as calm and relaxed. Younger people often associate happiness with excitement and energy. (Kamvar et al. 2009, 5.) Also the happiness in the work concept may vary enormously, since the generations do value the meaning of work differently and the gap is said to grow in the future (Manka 2011, 11). The resolution is to divide people into categories by their type of valuing happiness (Varila & Viholainen 2000, 39). People might also have a very individual frame of measuring the happiness they experience (Ojanen 2009, 19). If we look at this from the evolutionary point of view, the frame should not differ that much between individuals; e.g. pain has its common spectrum, so why wouldn't happiness have it too? (Veenhoven 2010, 206). The validity of happiness studies is often questioned. According to Veenhoven's broad study there is no evidence that the questions measure something else than meant and that we can trust the measures of happiness, at least for now. (Veenhoven 2010, 613.)

Can problems in measuring happiness arise if the person is feeling both happy and sad at the same time? Layard (2005, 21) argues that it is not possible to have both feelings simultaneously. The positive feelings we have destroy the negative ones and the other way round. "Happiness begins where unhappiness ends" (Layard 2005, 13). However, the social psychologist McDougall argues, that it is possible for a person to be in pain and happy and to experience pleasure but to be unhappy at the same time (Salerno 2010, 56).

Most of the occasions do feel much more valuable when reflecting, than at the time they occurred. The Kilimanjaro-experience, mentioned at the beginning of the thesis, is a good

example of this: what a great difference it makes had the level of my happiness been measured on the top of Kilimanjaro, or measured right now, three years after the experience. So when measuring happiness in our past, it should be taken into consideration that we tend to add interpretations and evaluations, which would not have had any influence on that specific moment. (Bok 2010, 33.) However, when answering to happiness surveys, people often do not valuate the feeling of that moment, but they tend to look at the average of happiness in a longer period of time (Layard 2005, 13).

The answers might be influenced or even manipulated by certain aspects, such as finding a coin before valuing the happiness or having a great weather on the day of the query. The latter can be avoided by asking the respondent how good the weather currently is, then the weather does not influence the valuation. Also the questionnaire makes a difference. The earlier questions of the survey might influence the results of latter questions. (Kahneman & Krueger, 2006, 6.) According to Veenhoven (2010, 612) this is true, but it does not matter especially when comparing the average of happiness between groups, since the fluctuations balance the results. One solution to this is that the questions of the survey or interview are asked in a random order (Dockery 2010, 19). One's ratings to current happiness have also been tested by asking their friends how happy they would rate the subjects to be. The results have not been discordant. This proves that happy people are that in others' eyes too. (Frey & Stutzer 2002, 15.) This also adds to credibility.

Ego-defence and social desirability might also influence the answers given. We want to look and do better in other people's eyes and that might make it appealing for us to rate our happiness higher than it actually is. Therefore indirect questioning and diverse methods, such as clinical interviews and content analyses on diaries, are needed (Veenhoven 2010, 611). A Finnish scientist J.P. Roos has also examined this ego-defence and he calls it *onnellisuusmuuri, the wall of happiness*. The wall of happiness means pretty much the same as Veenhoven has described above. The subjects do not want to revile themselves fully and instead of telling about their life as it is, they pretend that everything is fine. They create a wall that only shows the façade they have decided to show, what is beneath is not available to the researcher. Problems are disregarded or shared on a very light manner, mostly when already solved. (Roos 1987, 214.) This wall of happiness might have a strong

effect on the happiness results, depending on how highly it is used in society. One way to get to the other side of the wall in happiness studies is to have several interviews.

A happiness-survey was recently made in England by asking how happy the citizens were in three different ways: on the phone, online and face-to-face. The results showed significant differences. People were clearly happier when the question was asked on the phone than in the two other ways. They were the unhappiest when they had rated their happiness online. The latter supports the earlier notes, since online people didn't have to think about ego-defence, but why was their happiness rated higher on telephone than face-to-face interviews? P. Dolan's explanation is that "on telephone people have a greater licence to lie than face-to-face" and adds that "if you want citizens to be happy, ask about their happiness on telephone". He also reminds that we do vote in private booths and therefore we might want to reply to the happiness questions the same way too. (P. Dolan, conference on Measures of Subjective Well-being for Public Policy 13.7.2012.)

Some could argue that international surveys of happiness face one big dilemma: the language. What if happiness means different things to English people than the Swedish? How can their values on happiness be compared equally if they are thinking of different matters and therefore giving answers to divergent questions? Layard (2005) finds evidence in several researches that even though Chinese and English for example, are very dissimilar, the words for happiness have equal meanings. The same was found in Switzerland where French, German and Italian are spoken and yet the replies in happiness studies were very similar in all language groups. (Layard 2005, 34.) According to Veenhoven (2010) happiness has a word in every language of the world, also the facial expressions for happiness are found in all cultures. Also the low rate (less than 2%) of people answering "I don't know" to happiness research around the world, supports this view. (Veenhoven 2010, 612.)

The language does not, however, provide the most challenging dilemmas. White, Gaines, Jha and Marshall (2012) found out in their recent well-being study, that the surveys we in the academic and western world are so used to, are not as easily filled in in some developing countries. Western people have learnt to respond to survey questions, and are familiar with abstracting and generalizing their experiences. White et al. noticed very

quickly within their fieldwork in Zambia and India that people with little schooling and no past experience were not familiar with the survey mode of questioning. They often asked for examples or answered the questions dissimilarly to expectations. For example asking about the well-being in India raised dilemmas due to people not being used to talking about themselves, but to imply more general statements, such as "the life as a woman". They also avoided negative statements since fearing of the evil eye. Also one's pride of their own achievements was seen as inappropriate. (White, Gaines, Jha & Marshall, 2012, 15.) These findings rise questions if the same survey can be used around the globe, no matter how well translated, to measure the overall happiness of citizens accordingly?

Besides, can we really compare the results of happiness levels e.g. in Mexico and Finland? The cultures are very dissimilar. Are the right questions asked and correct aspects emphasized? For example in the OECD's Better life index, the satisfaction of life is divided into 11 categories. One of them is housing and the satisfaction is indicated by the room per person. This might be highly valid in Finland where people seem to value privacy and space, but is it so in Mexico? Can we say that Mexicans are unhappier than Finns, since their kids do not have their own rooms? In some countries the satisfaction might also rise from aspects such as spirituality, according to the context or the history of the country. These are not comparable globally, so how can happiness be measured then? OECD recognizes these problems. The 11 categories are identified based on their research on what brings life-satisfaction to people's lives, but they are aware of the fact that cultural differences do exist and context-specific information might be needed. More indicators will therefore be gradually added to each topic. They are also asking individuals to recommend new indicators through their websites. (OECD, n.d.) Frey and Stutzer conclude that "the main use of happiness measures is not to compare levels, but rather to seek to identify the determinants of happiness" (Frey & Stutzer 2000, 922). Suh and Koo (2008, 423) highlight that it does not matter if the happiness-believes differ greatly among cultures, or if they even seem wrong to others, but what matters is "the way happiness is represented in people's minds, since it affects virtually every decisions and judgments made about happiness". Therefore, we should not compare happiness across countries, but to understand what brings happiness to people around the globe.

When the WVS results have shown Finland to rank among the ten happiest countries in the world, strong arguments have arisen on the web sites and forums. Some Finnish people cannot understand how those results can be true in a country where depression medicine is widely used and suicide rates are rather high. Why does research show people being reasonably happy with their lives in average, but yet fatalism in depression, burnout and anxiety seem to be leading us into a catastrophe? Do people rate their happiness level too high, do they try to hide the real situation, or do they not see their miserability themselves? Ojanen (2009) believes that normal sorrows and losses are too easily diagnosed as psychic problems. People can see them as part of a normal life and still be generally happy in their lives, but the medicalization of these problems shows differing results in research and in media. (Ojanen 2009, 33.) Veenhoven (1984, 144) notes that suicide rates do not tell much about the average happiness in a country, since "the individual's inclination to resort to suicide in cases of chronic unhappiness" varies greatly in different cultures and hardly any correlation between average happiness and the current suicide rates exists.

Potts (2011) argues that measuring happiness in direct studies is not possible, and the only way to get reliable data is through observation of the choices people actually make in their lives. This is also called the "revealed preference theory" in economics. (Potts 2011, 4.) The classical and modern definitions for the revealed preference theory vary, but the main idea is "characterizing the empirical content of a given economic model when some parameters are unobserved". This means that by observing people's preferences (unobserved parameters) we can obtain a universal axiomatization. (Chambers, Echenique & Shmaya 2010, 2.)

Bok (2010, 40) reminds that the main problem in measuring happiness is, that the subject is still quite new. Even though refining happiness has been the dilemma of philosophers and poets for centuries, only during the last few decades using science has been realized (Gilbert 2012, 85). Even though hundreds of researches are carried out and lots of articles and books written about happiness, it is still seen as a "young science". The definitions of happiness vary a lot and so do the ways of measuring it. Therefore, it is often hard to compare the results between studies or replicate them, and the confidence of accuracy might be questioned. Due to the novelty of this field, new discoveries are constantly made and so "the happiness research is bound to be less stable and more prone to controversy

than most". (Bok 2010, 40.) This should stabilize with time though, and with more research and confirming of the results, the subject will become less uncertain. Facing these dilemmas and finding answers to them is necessary.

3 Happiness, economics and politics

We are interested in knowing how happy or unhappy we are and how that level of happiness is situated in the happiness levels globally. However, these measures are truly of no help unless we know what actually makes us happy. Therefore the happiness enquiries require sufficient other information in order to build a boarder understanding on how different aspects influence our happiness (Helliwell & Wang 2012, 21). Since there is relevant information, why would we not use it and make happiness easily available to all? When talking about happiness and how to emphasize it, it is important to look at happiness from economical and governmental aspects too. However, I will not concentrate on these issues in the empirical part of the thesis.

3.1 Happiness and economics

It would be wrong not to mention economics when doing research in happiness studies. In November 1997 Economic Journal raised the economists' awareness with the "Economics and Happiness" issue. It proved them that happiness was an empirically relevant concept. (Frey & Stetzer 2000, 919.) Now happiness economics is even called "one of the hottest new research fields in recent times" (e.g. Bok 2010; Potts 2011). Therefore I will devote one of the chapters of this thesis to happiness and economics. However, the findings and

opinions of many economists are discussed throughout the thesis. When we are talking about happiness at work, it is also essential to know how it affects economy, or if it has no influence whatsoever.

Happiness economics is a mixture of psychology, utility theory and macroeconomic policy. It means measuring happiness on different scales and searching for the correlates with economic issues such as income and inflation. Employment is also in focus of happiness economics. The agenda is to increase the social happiness by using economic policy. Potts (2011) points out that when comparing the economics of happiness and positive psychology there are clear differences. Positive psychology tells people how to improve their lives, while happiness economics seeks for the instruments to do so on economical and political level. (Potts 2011, 4, 6.)

One of the most discussed happiness dilemmas in economics, was first published by Easterlin in the 1970's, revised in 1994. He questioned whether raising everybody's income could increase the happiness of all? His answer to the question is *no*.

> "This is because judgments of personal well-being are made by comparing one's objective status with a subjective living level norm, which is significantly influenced by the average level of living of the society as a whole. If living levels increase generally, subjective living level norms rise. The individual whose income is unchanged will feel poorer, even though his or her objective circumstances are the same as before." (Esterlin 1995, 36.)

Easterlin's theory is the base for the Easterlin paradox (nominated by economists), which focuses on the dilemma of the richer being happier than the poorer in most countries, but the rich countries not being any happier than the poor countries. Also, the countries becoming richer has not shown any evidence of people becoming happier. (Clark, Frijters & Shields, 2008, 96.) The paradox has been widely debated and disputed.

Different findings seem to infer that on the certain financial level, income growth does not increase happiness. This is therefore taken as evidence not to concentrate on economic growth. Potts (2011, 5) complains that every found negative correlation on the economic factor in happiness studies easily arouses "populist" policies. Populist policies or not,

Veenhoven (2010, 606) has looked at the GDB of nations in 2005 and compared them with the results of life satisfaction queries. As the figure below shows, there is a positive correlation, but also a pattern of diminishing utility.
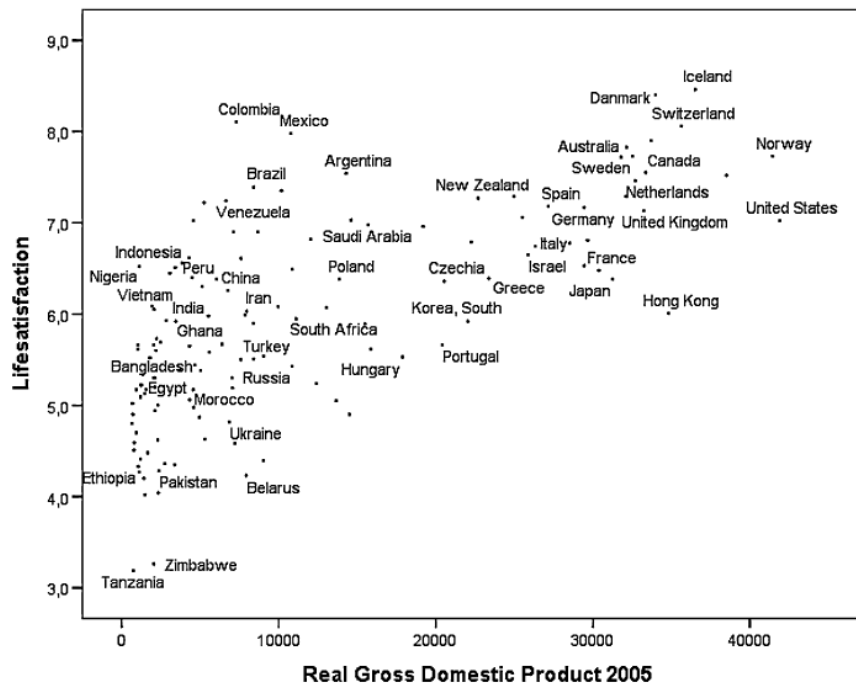
Figure 6 The real gross domestic product and life satisfaction (Veenhoven 2010, 606).

The citizens of Columbia and Mexico seem to be as satisfied with their lives as the citizens of Denmark and Switzerland. They are also more satisfied than the citizens of Norway, one of the richest countries in the world. Despite these few exceptions the linearity of happiness can however be seen. Veenhoven, however, suggests that investing in economic development is not the way to boost the happiness of citizens, especially not in rich nations, but that governmental efficiency is more valuable as the figure 7 in the next chapter shows. The corruption of the Columbian and Mexican governments and officials, and the high rate of criminality do make suspect the results of these two countries though. However, according to Veenhoven, even though corruption lowers happiness, the acceptance of corruption varies (Veenhoven 2010, 623).

Too many people are stressed and uncertain of their work. They are also overloaded with tasks and expectations. In Finland a bit more than half of the employees find their workload mentally exhausting (Manka 2011, 15). How high do these figures need to rise until the

politicians recognize the need for work satisfaction and happiness at work? A person's need or want to seek for happiness is fine, but can survey-based measures really form the base for economic policy as well? And should it be so? I will try to find answers to these questions in the next chapter.

3.2 Happiness and politics

The discussion whether governments should enhance the happiness of citizens is not only this decade's or century's topic. Over 200 hundred years ago, in the 18th century, an English philosopher and political radical, Jeremy Bentham, raised the subject. He claimed that the role of the government is to maximize the happiness of its citizens and to minimize their sufferings – laws should reflect the interests of the individuals. (Bok 2011, 89.) According to Bentham, governments should aim at the "greatest happiness for the greatest number" (Veenhoven 2010, 606).

Potts (2011, 3) is worried about the happiness economics becoming a political project. He claims that Sarkozy in France and Cameron in the U.K. are already pursuing new happiness metrics and policies to increase the outcomes of happiness. In the Kingdom of Bhutan, where the government has proclaimed the goal of measuring Gross National Happiness GNH, the happiness policy already includes compulsory dress codes and architectural requirements. (Kahneman & Krueger, 2006, 22; Potts 2011, 3, 7.) People cannot be forced to be happy, history has already shown that. The scariest of all are those ideologies that are based on one person or a group of elite knowing what is the best for all. "We are on the way to distraction, if the principle rights of citizens are restricted in the name of future success" (Ojanen 2009, 202). Gilbert (2012, 90) reminds that even though science will most likely soon be able to tell us how to live the lives we want, we can decide ourselves what kinds of lives we should want to live.

However, governments manage what they measure. Gross Domestic Product, the GDP, which has been measuring national success since World War II[1], has been under a siege for a while now. It has its flaws and is skewed, and most of all, it does not reflect the well-being (and progress and development) as well as other measures, such as educational achievement, life expectancy or political freedom. (Fox 2012, 80-82.)

Is it even possible to create a happiness policy that suits all? If certain aspects are turned into laws to increase happiness, we cannot talk about individual freedom of choice, but all are forced to create similar happiness. One policy cannot make everybody happy, so disagreements will arise (Potts 2011, 7). Happiness is also argued for too complex an issue to be controlled (Veenhoven 2010, 614). Stearns (2012) asks whether stressing for happiness means that unhappiness is to be avoided. If so, the loss of happiness might lead into anxiety and make a lot more people miserable. Also, society saturated with happiness might find it difficult to deal with sadness, such as death. (Stearns 2012, 107-108.)

Can people be made to be happy? Some experts think that demanding people to be happy is like asking them to become taller. That might be an overstatement though. Stressing happiness will most likely produce more happy people, but there are complexities and vulnerable factors too. (Stearns 2012, 108.) So if we want to make people happy, how should we do it?

Veenhoven (2010) has listed the characteristics of society and their correlations with happiness in 146 nations in 2006, based on the WDH. Explained variance (adjusted R2) is 75% (table 2). The table shows that the wealth of the nation has influence on happiness. Happiness also correlates with law, freedom, cultural pluriformity and modernity. Income inequality does not seem to correlate much with happiness, as is discussed earlier in the text. Gender inequality has more correlation. The current policies in many Western Countries are similar and advancing the happiness of the citizens. Allowing freedom and respecting human rights are what people require from their governments (Veenhoven 2010, 626).

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[1] GDP (the dollar value of a country's economic output) was first known as Gross National Product, GNP and was taken in use in early 1990's.

Table 2 Happiness and society in 146 nations around 2006 (Veenhoven 2010, 616)

Characteristics of society	Correlation with happiness	N
Affluence	+.69	136
Rule of law		
Civil rights	+.50	131
Corruption	-.69	137
Freedom		
Economical	+.63	135
Political	+.53	131
Personal	+.41	83
Inequality		
Income inequality	-.08	119
Gender inequality	-.21	110
Citizenship		
Participation in voluntary associations	-.04	73
Preference for participative leadership	+.61	57
Pluriformity		
% Migrants	+.29	126
Tolerance of minorities	+.49	77
Modernity		
Schooling	+.56	138
Informatization	+.63	58
Urbanization	+.58	137

Potts (2011, 3) argues that happiness neither demands nor needs governmental planning, comparing it to the markets not needing governmental guidance to function. However there are arguments that people do not always know what is good for them and therefore there is a reason for public intervention to make chances to "wrong" individual choices (Potts 2011, 8). V. Tiberius (conference on Measures of Subjective Well-being for Public Policy 15.7.2012) warns governments of being too paternalistic and claims that promoting someone else's good without that person's consent might fail to respect the person, and have too much effect on people's liberty.

Frey and Stutzer (2000) do not agree with Potts either. They argue that the government's decisions and actions have a strong impact on its citizens: "Institutional conditions in the form of the extent and form of democracy have systematic and sizeable effects on individual well-being, in addition to demographic and economic factors." According to their research interviewing more than 6000 Swiss residents, proved that the governmental structures can raise happiness. They claim that when democracy is well developed,

politicians are forced to follow the expectations and wishes of the voters. The citizens also have more possibilities to participate and influence. (Frey & Stutzer 2000, 919, 937.) The government's role in pursuing happiness can also be seen in correcting market imperfections and enhancing opportunities for more flexible working opportunities (Layard 2005, 7). Public policies can create bases for happiness to increase, by providing freedom, education and therapy for the citizens (Veenhoven 2010, 620).

People want to be happy and they value happiness highly in their lives. In value preference studies, happiness ranks very high. People rank happiness much higher, than professional moralists give credit for. (Veenhoven 2010, 625.) If we live in a democratic society, people's need and desire to be happy should not be neglected. Therefore, if people find happiness important, governments should be interested in enhancing it too (P. Dolan, conference on Measures of Subjective Well-being for Public policy, 13.7.2012).
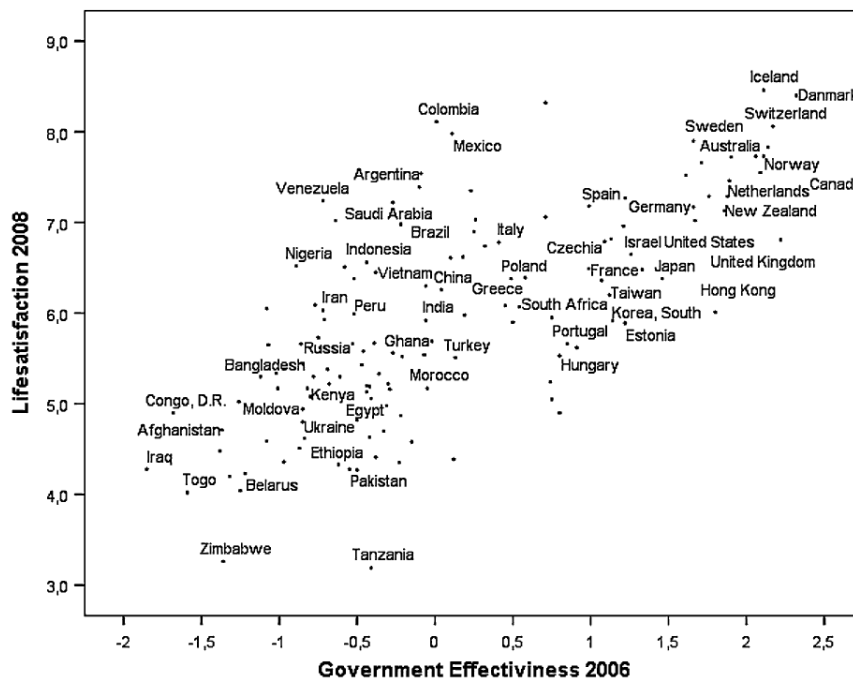
Figure 7 The government effectiveness and life satisfaction (Veenhoven 2010, 606).

Veenhoven has researched the effectiveness of the governments and compared it to the life satisfaction in the nations in 2006. As figure 7 shows the effectiveness of the government is linear meaning that happiness can be pursued by better governmental planning and efforts. The governments in Iceland, Denmark and Canada are working effectively and it adds to

the life satisfaction of the citizens too, whereas Zimbabwe's and Togo's lack of good government has correlation on the life satisfaction of the citizens.

Veenhoven argues on behalf of a theory that happiness depends on the universal human needs meeting the living conditions. The so-called comparison theory (cultural wants affecting the happiness) or the folklore theory (specific ideas about life influencing happiness) do not fit this theory and these findings. (Veenhoven 2010, 617.)

Does the government want happy citizens then? They should, since according to studies happiness also has a correlation on moral conviction. Solidarity, tolerance and love are more common and often endorsed by happy people. The research does not yet, however, show whether this is universal. Happy people also live longer. To sum up: they are better citizens. (Veenhoven 2010, 619, 624.)

Can we really rely on results of research when making policies? Are they reliable enough? Bok (2010) suggests that if the governments decide to use the results of happiness studies, they should pay attention to both the studies of sensations on a typical day and happiness over-all in life and not to concentrate only on either of these approaches, since neither of these can really capture the topic as board as this. They do provide the best possible general view that today's science can provide though. The results may not be perfect, but they are accurate enough to help the government officials. The findings are also more reliable than e.g. opinion polls or talking to voters – which normally are the methods of lawmakers. (Bok 2010, 34, 39.) P. Dolan (conference on Measures of Subjective Well-being for Public policy, 13.7.2012) notes that the questions asked from citizens make a great difference on how they see government's role in promoting happiness. If people are asked whether it is the government's job to reduce misery instead of asking its responsibility to improve happiness, the results can be very different. V. Tiberius (conference on Measures of Subjective Well-being for Public policy, 15.7.2012) also highlights that most people do not have clearly defined conceptions of well-being and suggests using reflective polling methods when asking for public opinions. This means providing materials and possibilities to discuss with specialists before voting. Tiberius also reminds that the governments should not focus on people's preferences or desires, but on their values that they take to generate reasons for action.

Sachs (2012) proposes four main pillars as the next Sustainable Development Goals, following the Millenium Development Goals by UN:

- to end extreme poverty by 2030
- environmental sustainability
- social inclusion
- good governance.

Within these pillars, happiness should be available for all. (Sachs 2012, 8.)

The change in working-life attitudes cannot be neglected in politics and policy planning. The strong need to re-organize the orders of different aspects in life needs accurate attention and actions. People do find their ways to import happiness into their lives within or without work. If it is not possible in the work environment, they do not care of risking the solid income and take leaps to find happiness outside. There is a lot of discussion about "downshifting" in the Western world. It comes from the States, but has found its ground in Europe as well. It means moderating the sacrifices given to work and fighting against stress and burnout, by controlling the time spent at work (Manka 2011, 29). All this cannot be good for the economics of the country; therefore policies are needed to enable those needs in an organized way without harming the economy.

Besides, it needs to be mentioned that the biggest challenge for most governments is not to bring happiness into work. Their biggest challenge is to create more jobs for citizens. About one in three people of working age does not have a job in the OECD area, including many out-of-school youth and disabled people. Faced with ageing populations and rising social expenditures, facilitating employment for those who can work has become a priority. (OECD, n.d..) At the same time, creating better jobs and work environments should not be neglected. Overall it shows that in order to enhance the happiness of citizens, the governments do need to revalue and readjust today's remedies. It looks like focusing on erasing poverty and on gaining maximal materialism has come to an end, creating intellectually and spiritually poor welfare states (Hirvonen & Mangeloja 2005, 11).

I have created a table to make it more comprehensive for the reader to sum up the findings of happiness from different research fields (table 3).

Table 3 Happiness in philosophy, psychology, sociology and economics

	Philosophy	Psychology	Sociology	Economics
Construct of happiness	- authentic happiness - hedonism - flourishing	- subjective well-being - flow	- quality of life - subjective well-being	- quality of life
Scientists	Aristotle Bentham Griffin Feldman	Diener Seligman Csikszentmihaly Ojanen	Veenhoven	Layard Kahneman Frey Bok
Measures of happiness	- experience sampling methods - happiness questionnaires - methodological questions	- World Value Surveys - Gallup World Poll	- life-review questionnaires - self-report surveys - clinical interviews - content analyses - World Value Surveys	- Human Development index - self-report surveys - new technologies
Research subject	- defining happiness - measuring happiness	- finding ways to improve people's lives - want to understand the feeling	- defining how happiness is valued in different societies - what characteristics of society correlate with happiness	- seeks for instruments to improve happiness of the citizens - focuses on income, inflation and employment - wants to know what people value
What causes happiness?	- knowledge - friendship - accomplishments - "we flourish by fully exercising our human capacities" (Haybron 2008, 25)	- relationships - relative income - employment - education	- wealth of the nation - social participation - freedom - cultural pluriformity and modernity - social inequality adds unhappiness	- employment - self-employment - education - increasing income - health
Conclusions	- Happiness is extremely important in people's lives. - Happiness leads to many good outcomes in life.	- Happiness is about being satisfied with life, while feeling good. Happy people: - are more sociable and creative - live longer - have stronger immune systems - make more money - are better leaders - are better citizens (also at the workplace)	- Happiness is not only a mental state but also a condition of society. - Happiness is the overall enjoyment of one's life as a whole.	- Democracy and federalism enhance happiness. - Economic development is one solution for boosting happiness.

4 Happiness at work

Working is one aspect of happiness. We spend half of the time we are awake at work. Work gives us the income and the identity (Ojanen 2009, 172). It is not only the salary we are after, but also very diverse aspects of work, which can either give us great pleasure or make us very unhappy. Happiness at work is a feeling of an individual and/or community. It arises from work, when all the imaginable aspects find their places in a right order. Since it is a personal experience, it is also a very individual experience. (Manka 2011, 77.) Trough the research of happiness at work, new aspects of work satisfaction can be found and adapted. Deeper focus on human capital should also be appreciated, since that is the most important capital the organization has (Varila & Viholainen 2000, 152).

People have a strong need to feel that they are giving something to society. Even a stronger need is to feel respected by their friends and family. (Layard 2005, 67, 156.) They need to feel part of the society they are living in. Work gives us meaning, and unemployment is seen as a major source of unhappiness, even depression (e.g. Frey & Stutzer 2000). Long-term unemployment has a negative effect on our self-respect and results in a loss of skills (which further reduces employability) (OECD, n.d.). However, in this research I do not concentrate on unemployment and on the unhappiness it brings, but on those parts of work that create joy and happiness.

Manka's (2011) recipe for the happiness at work includes five ingredients:
- organization,
- leadership,
- community,
- work
- and individual (employee).

Even if the first four function acceptably, the individual judges the situation based on their attitudes. Therefore satisfaction and happiness may vary greatly within the same organisation. (Manka 2011, 76.)

When the topic is happiness at work, Maslow's hierarchy of needs normally prompts up (e.g. Layard 2005; Ojanen 2010; Seligman 2003). It is a theory in psychology proposed by Abraham Maslow in 1943. His theory describes the motivations of an individual, which are divided into five stages or needs: physiological, safety, belongingness, love and esteem, and self-actualization. Work can be part and the motivation aspect of all these needs, but in today's Western world, most often it is about the self-actualization.

How is the work satisfaction connected with happiness at work? What is the difference between these two? Varila and Viholainen (2000, 35) explain that work satisfaction is the manifestation of happiness at work. Happiness at work creates work satisfaction, work motivation and other positive reactions linked to work.

In this study I have defined happiness as good and satisfactory feelings towards life. Happiness is also something felt in the long run, not just one moment of joy or laughter after a good joke. How to define happiness at work then? How does the nature of work and the working environment influence on happiness? I wish to find answers to these question in this study. We also need to consider what is the importance of happiness at work.

4.1 Is happiness needed at work?

Does happiness make people work better? Is happy personnel needed and wanted for more productive results? The research is all over the map.

Should work really be responsible for making us happy? Some research shows that happy people at work are not happy because of their work, but because they brought their happiness with them, from other aspects of life, e.g. hobbies and family-lives (Salerno 2010, 54). Some researchers have seen three possible forms of this relationship: spillover, segmentation and compensation. With spillover, experiences at work spill over the personal life, segmentation means total separation between these two and compensation stands for person compensating dissatisfying job by happiness in personal life. (Judge and Klinger 2008, 404.) Sirgy and Wu (2009, 185) emphasize that happiness should not be dependent

on one source only, but to be a mixture of multiple domains of life. Work itself cannot make us fully happy, and the same goes with personal life too. We need the balance between these two. However, Roy (2010, 222) reminds that we only have one life, no matter how often we seem to divide it into two: personal life and professional life. Maybe we should try to see them as one and enjoy life as a whole, not always complaining how the one steels resources from the other. Gavin and Mason (2004, 381) suggest that if we want to find or add happiness into our lives today, we must be happy at work. Person cannot be genuinely happy if unhappy at work. We devote quite a lot of energy and time to work and it also provides much of our social, political and interpersonal relationships. Therefore Gavin and Mason (2004, 387) indicate that ''in order to achieve the good life people must work in good organizations''.

It seems rather difficult to separate personal life's happiness from the happiness felt at work. If we are happy with our family-lives and free time, it will most likely reflect on our moods at work too. Also the opposite: divorce or death probably has an influence on our feelings at work. Therefor separation between these two is not needed. This thesis will concentrate on finding aspects bringing happiness to work and defining how those make a difference on how we experience our jobs. The influence of a personal life is acknowledged.

Some research shows that happiness is indeed a very valuable aspect when aiming at the high quality of work and results. It improves decision-making and the comprehension of work itself. Situations requiring communication skills, e.g. writing a contract, are found to be more successful at a happy working place. People expressing happiness at work are less likely to switch to an other employer and have fewer sick leaves and absences. Their immune system is stronger. Happiness has its effects on many levels: physical, psychological and social sectors. (Manka 2011, 43; Varila & Viholainen 2000, 76, 151.) However, some do argue that too much happiness nurtures initiative and creativity: we become passive when we have got everything we want. According to Veenhoven (2010, 626) this is because "the critics of happiness - mostly philosophers - tend to have a blind eye for the functions of a positive effect".

Positive feelings are bound to help over unpleasant situations and pitfalls. They give employees strength and energy, and increase the motivation. (Varila & Viholainen 2000, 77, 151.) Negative things cannot be prevented at any company, so companies should take emotions into account too. It should also be remembered in organizations that unhappiness shows. Customers interact with employees and they will quickly notice if there are problems in the company. This might affect the co-operation, especially if the quality of work or goods decreases due to unhappy working conditions – which is very often the case. Happy employees provide more full-filling services to those they do business with. (Gavin & Mason 2004, 381.)

It is not all bliss with happiness, there are downsizes too. Critics have claimed that too much happiness makes people lazy (Veenhoven 2010, 625). Efficiency seems to be the key word today, so if employees are too happy and joyful at work, aren't they spending too much time and effort on having fun and chatting? Not really. Research shows that the more satisfied the people are at work, the less time they spend discussing rumours or problems. They are more motivated to work efficiently. (Manka 2011, 38.) The more upset the employees are with the work, the more likely they will cling to the low feelings and complaining (Ojanen 2009, 41). According to Achor (2012, 102) unhappy employees lessen the productivity of 15 days each year, by having more sick leaves or days off.

Happy people tend to take more risks (Veenhoven 2010, 625). It is presumable because they believe in succeeding and they also trust the people around them to help in a case of pitfall. This can be a positive outcome, or turn into a massive problem, depending on the position of the happy employee and also on the field of business.

People in Western world cherish personal life satisfaction very high. They might not care about high salaries or expectations any more - but instead seek for happiness and other fulfilments. This has led to "down-shifting" and "getting out of the rat wheel", as well as looking for jobs outside one's own education field. This is not good for organizations and economy. In New York, law firms are spending much more money on retention than before, to stop young associates from leaving and looking for jobs that make them happier (Seligman 2003, 165).

Gavin and Mason (2004) highlight that a happy workplace has other advantages beside happy employees. It is the responsibility of organizations to maintain or create a good society too. "Health, happiness and productivity are all essential ingredients of a good society … improvement in productivity alone is not enough". (Gavin & Mason 2004, 381.) Consequently, happiness at work is very much needed. It should not be neglected or underestimated. Too often we see only the negative sides of the work and spend a lot of time on moaning about work conditions. Concentrating on creating happiness has its positive effects, since even talking about it directs us to positive aspects and strengths (Varila & Viholainen 2000, 159). Pink (2006, 3) argues that we are in a new "Conceptual age in which qualities of inventiveness, empathy, joyfulness and meaning will increasingly determine who flourishes and who flounders" and therefore successful businesses will most likely pay more interest in happiness within next years.

4.2 The aspects creating happiness at work

To understand what creates happiness at work, we need to take some different aspects under a loop. Salary, working hours, co-workers, work environment and management are all very often argued and researched, but we should not forget a person's own personality and attitudes as one main source of happiness. Besides, the value of work itself does have a great impact on how happy we are at work.

4.2.1 Income

When talking about happiness and work, pay is a vital aspect to look closer. The salary matters, to some more than to others. The salary might be one of the aspects considered when choosing a career (Layard 2005, 159.) However, it should be remembered that according to studies materialism appears to be associated with unhappiness (Veenhoven 2010, 622).

According to Layard (2005, 44) we value others and ourselves according to the salary. So an income is not only to buy things and pay the mortgage, it is to compare how we are valued. If a colleague gets a pay rise, and others receive their regular salary, everything should be fine, since things have improved and nobody has suffered. In a real life, this is not how the colleagues will feel though.

We compare the salaries within our "reference group": people with similar jobs, education or experience, usually working in the same organization. To maintain peace at the company, salaries are often kept secret. We do not always need to know the salary though, since we can estimate the income by the living standards of others. The happiness of salary does not arouse from how much we earn, but how much we earn compared to the others. (Layard 2005, 44, 46.)

Warr (2007) argues Layard's opinion and claims no matter how much we talk about money and how important it seems to be according to media and general discussion, when the salary reaches certain level – that is, to receive a reasonable salary – we do not care about it that much. What we care is the security the income offers – availability to money. (Warr 2007, 727.) Veenhoven (2010, 619) claims that income does increase happiness, but only in the Western World: when comparing happiness across nations, income seems to have a negative effect on happiness. What also speaks against the money not mattering are the results of some studies, showing that women are happier and more satisfied at work, even though their incomes are lower on average, and they do get less other benefits compared to men (Warr 2007, 729). Helliwell and Huang (2011, 763) explain this by women valuating jobs with lower pay, but better flexibility with working arrangements.

According to the study of Frey and Stutzer (2000, 938) a higher income has a significantly positive but only minor effect on happiness. Killingsworth (2012, 89) argues that happiness is more about moment-to-moment experiences than a stable condition such as a high salary.

The salary is not the best motivator either. Work itself should give meaning, and to encourage us to try our best. A good salary might not keep us going for years if the work itself does not fulfill our needs. The salary and performance-related pay have, however, been the incentives to motivate employees during the last decade. This might have turned

against the original idea of making people work harder and better. Since they have got paid for everything separately, they have not had the feeling of doing good work automatically and for the sake of doing work well, but only because they do get paid for it. This means that some people work even less, and the results might be seen in public services, for instance. (Layard 2005, 227.)

A research made in Russia, shows that happiness seems to have a positive effect on a future income and not the other way round. In other words: happy people are more likely to become wealthier in the future (Graham et al. 2004, 341). However, these results are in the Russian context, depending on the time and changes of a certain country.

4.2.2 Working hours

One aspect of happiness is how much time a person spends at work. According to OECD, long working hours may impinge personal health, increase stress and endanger safety. In all of the ten highest ranking countries on OECD Better life index, people worked less than the OECD average. Norway standing out with 1407 working hours a year, much less than the OECD average of 1739 hours. In comparison: Turkish people work 1918 hours a year. They rank the lowest in the Better life index overall. (OECD, n.d.) The number of working hours naturally has an impact on time spent with friends and family, on hobbies and resting.

When comparing the working hours in European history, it is obvious, that people have chosen to work less once their financial situation has improved. The hours of work have fallen and people have decided to spare more time for their private lives. This is not the case in the United States though, rather the opposite. When looking for reasons for this, Layard points out the lower taxes that encourage people to work more, or hints that they find their work more satisfying. Who knows, private lives might be less appealing too. (Layard 2005, 50.)

Working hours are regulated by law in many Western Countries. There is also The European Union Working Time Directive impacting hours worked (OECD 2011, 129). Overtime work is, however, quite well known and days can stretch much from the hours in

the contract. Some employees feel a need to take work home, too, and continue the tasks even to the late hours. This might influence the family life and relationships. There is quite a lot of research on life dissatisfaction caused by the imbalance in the work versus family role. When work requires too many resources from family life, unhappiness occurs. (Sirgy & Wu 2009, 185.) This is especially crucial for those with little children. It is quite natural that they value the family life highly and want to spend more hours with their children and fewer at work. The older generation does not have such responsibilities anymore and they might be happy to spend more time at work. So the situation in life should be taken into consideration (Manka 2011, 26).

We know that time spent at work is away from the time with the family and friends. We feel guilty of it and would like to work less. So why do so many people in so many countries work over 50 hours a week or even more? Men tend to increase the working hours after getting married and having children; this is probably a results of women staying at home with the children and the decrease of the household income. People do not only work to make the ends meet though, but they also want to improve material living standards, hence they work longer days. Also in some societies or organizations, the norms and culture encourage long working days. (OECD 2011, 129.)

There is some research to prove that a four-day working week enhances happiness and very often leads to better outcomes as well (Ojanen 2009, 162). This could be one resolution for companies who really want to pursuit the happiness of their employees and provide alternative ways to influence one's work, especially nowadays, when aiming at postponing the retirement age and attracting the new generation to stay at work. However, according to Dialogi-project[2] even though the Finnish Y-generation wants to work less, they are still satisfied with the 37,5-hour-week. What they want more are holidays – paid or unpaid. (Piha&Poussa 2012.)

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[2] A work-related research in co-operation with the Finnish Ministry of Education and participating with 1700 Aalto university students.

4.2.3 Co-workers and the work environment

Happiness is not all about a person's own direct action towards better work satisfaction, but it makes demands on the work environment as well. Happiness is seldom felt alone. Co-workers have a crucial effect on the happiness we feel at work (Ojanen 2009, 172). If the atmosphere in the office is always tense and stressed, it is less likely to generate happiness. A positive mood is needed to express happiness (Varila & Viholainen 2000, 68).

Coffee breaks, lunches, meetings and contacts with the others are vital. It is not only their quantity and the regularity that matters, but the quality as well (Warr 2007, 727). The social intercourse is a well-proven source of happiness at work, and disagreements, how trivial they might be, should not be disregarded. The quality of social intercourse reflects on the entire quality of the organization's results (Varila & Viholainen 2000, 72).

How to create a happy work place then? Manka (2011, 138) says that positivity and openness in the communication are important. Sharing the good news and highlights creates happiness, as well as overall activity and helping the colleagues. Achor (2012) agrees on Manka's opinion and the research shows strong social support correlating with a large number of good outcomes: it predicts longevity as well as regular exercise. It is also the greatest weapon against unhappiness at the time of a high stress. Achor also points out that according to the research employees who provide social support to colleagues are also 40 % more likely to get a promotion and feel 10 times more engaged to their jobs, than people providing little to social networks. (Achor 2012, 102.)

Any kind of harassment should be forbidden and the rules ought to be clear to all. Manka also points out that diversity should be valued. (Manka 2011, 138.) A happy atmosphere will become even more vital in the future, when the y-generation invades offices and organizations. According to the Dialogi- project, a lousy atmosphere is the main reason for the Finnish y-generation to leave the organization. They value highly those whom they work with. (Piha&Poussa 2012.)

As the next chapter emphasizes the role of management in creating happiness, it is valid to know how to help the manager in it. According to the research by Heikkilä-Tammi et al. (2011) openness and open discussion are by far the best ways to help the interaction between the supervisor and an employee. This is the opinion of almost 70 per cent of the employee respondents. Intriguing fact was that 15 per cent of them had no suggestions at all. (Heikkilä-Tammi 2011, 61.)

4.2.4 Management

Is it the manager's duty to create happiness at the workplace? Can we blame our boss, if we are not happy and satisfied? Is the lack of happiness a sign that the organization is poorly managed?

There is a common thought at many work places that the management is the obstacle on the way to happiness (Varila & Viholainen 2000, 73). The management level may regard working as the main task at the workplace, not having fun. This might be right and some of the employees may share the same value, while the others may not. Today's challenge for the management is to recognize there are different expectations for work and happiness in it. Many generations are present in the work field and they need to be lead in various ways (Manka 2011, 11). The leadership is a field argued and studied a lot and yet it is sometimes difficult to define perfect leadership. Guiding, encouraging and participation by the management are detected to pursuit a positive environment (Varila & Viholainen 2000, 74). Gilbert (2012, 87) remarks that a reward works better than a punishment.

In Kahnemans et al. (2004) study nine hundred working women in Texas valued their happiness while interacting with different people during the day. They were the happiest when interacting with their friends and the unhappiest with their bosses. Even being alone made them happier than intervening with the boss. The co-workers' company made them a little bit happier, which was also the party they spent the most hours of a day with. (Layard 2005, 16.)

Research shows that people need feedback and comments on their work. We constantly want to know how we have succeeded and if we have completed the tasks properly. The work itself can provide the feeling of success, but we often want to hear it from our superiors as well. Different feedback and reward systems are shown to create a positive atmosphere, therefore creating a solid system should not be neglected by the management. Getting feedback also enables learning and advancing. (Heikkilä-Tammi et al. 2011, 62; Varila & Viholainen 2000, 71.) Receiving feedback is one of the conditions of flow as well, especially when shared frequently. Since flow is one of the aspects of happiness, the management should contribute to it. An employer should choose an employee whose main strengths are the best for the vacant job. As a manager it is also possible to allow employees to deform or reorganize the work within the bounds. (Saligman 2003, 176.)

Happiness can be remarkably enhanced when personal work performance is satisfying. However, it is hard to be successful at work if health and family responsibilities are neglected (Sirgy & Wu 2009, 191). Therefore the management should concentrate on how to maintain the balance between these aspects. The employees can be much more successful at their work when health and family situations are taken into consideration.

Happiness cannot be forced either. There are stories of organizations in America obliging the personnel to be happy all the time, and if they are not, there is something wrong with them – not the corporate (Salerno 2010, 56). The results of the obligations can be anticipated. To create happiness at work, freedom and unpredictability are needed. There is no point telling the personnel that work should be funny at this and at that point. (Varila & Viholainen 2000, 35.)

Manka's (2011, 114) tools for managing happiness at workplace are as follows:
- The manager should be fare and accurate to create an atmosphere of trust and control.
- Reciprocity should be valued and optimism endorsed.
- To make the employees feel respected, social and emotional support should be given (also Warr 2007, 727).
- Also the well-being of the personnel should be taken care of, since it is the most important resource.

Heikkilä-Tammi et al (2011) asked their research participants "What is the good leadership like?" More than 50 per cent of the respondents wanted the supervisors to be just, fair and objective. Almost half of them highlighted the importance of noticing and listening to the employees. Also problem solving was highly valued. (Heikkilä-Tammi 2011, 60.) The research by Halliwell and Huang (2011, 763) shows that women especially value trust in management. They might choose a job with a lower pay but with high levels of trust. Transparency and the up-to-date knowledge of the financial situation of the company also have an positive effect on happiness of the employees (Gavin and Mason 2004, 383).

As Bentz and Frey's (2004) research in a later chapter shows, the autonomy and possibility to influence do matter. Ojanen (2009, 162) gives an example of a Danish factory where the employees were given much more autonomy and influence than before. Within two years time the amount of absence decreased by 50 per cent and the productivity increased by 60%. The management should trust the employees and provide more autonomy.

According to Killingsworth (2012) people are less happy when their minds are wandering than when they are focused. Wandering effects sharply on happiness and lowers it. Sometimes the managers of people doing creative work think a certain amount of daydreaming emphasizes productivity, but it is quite the opposite. The managers should therefore help the employees to stay focused, not only for the benefits of the company, but for the sake of an employee too. (Killingsworth 2012, 89.)

Achor (2012) suggests that employees should do quick happiness exercises during each work day. They might consist of writing down three things the employee is grateful for, writing a positive message to someone in their network or meditating at their desks. According to his study, these exercises increased significantly the happiness of tax managers. And when tested the same group again four months later, they still showed high scores in optimism and happiness. (Achor 2012, 101.) One company in the states is often voted the best place to work for. There are several reasons for this, but according to Gavin and Mason (2004, 383) one of the reasons is that yoga sessions, stretching classes, chair massages and online exercises are provided. Could these exercises be something the managers could take into use to increase the happiness at the work place?

The research by Gavin and Mason (2004) shows that employee education has an influence on happiness too. One of the highest ranking companies on the list of *The best 100 companies to work for* in the States is highly committed to employee education. The employees receive 235 hours of formal training during their first year. Later on the average of education is 162 hours yearly. The employees are also encouraged to take a sabbatical after 10 years of employment. (Gavin and Mason 2004, 383.) Employee education is therefore not only a good way to add employee commitment, but to add happiness too.

4.2.5 Level of profession

Not only what you do matters, but also on how high a level of the professional scale you are. According to Veenhoven (1984, 226) all over the world the following hierarchy appeared:

- professionals, managers;
- clerical workers;
- skilled manual workers;
- students, retired persons, housewives, farmers (in western nations);
- unskilled workers, peasants (in underdeveloped nations).

This was the hierarchy that came out in most of the studies across the globe. However, the differences between the happiness on different levels were not that significant in some countries. The differences were the greatest in the UK and the least pronounced in Australia and the USA. Veenhoven points out, that the effects of certain aspects such as income, education and social prestige might have a great influence on these results. However, he sees the results prove that "not all jobs are as satisfying in the long run". (Veenhoven 1984, 228.) This is a broad topic, and explaining the connections between happiness and the levels within the society would demand another study. Therefore these findings are only briefly mentioned here and the depth of the issue is acknowledged.

4.2.6 Humour

When talking about happiness, we cannot ignore humour, the possible source of laughter and joy. How does humour at a workplace make us happier then? According to Romero and Cruthirds (2006, 58) humour has a great impact on workgroups and organizations. Co-working and communication are really important, as studies show in earlier chapters. A relaxed atmosphere without unnecessary barriers may help to endorse teamwork, to lessen stress and to reduce any tension. The sense of humour varies quite a lot; not all joking is good for the working spirit. Also the ways of telling jokes or the goals of a joker might be very different.

The multi-dimensional conceptualization of humour divides humour into five different styles: affiliative, self-enhancing, aggressive, mild-aggressive and self-defeating humour. Affiliative humour is to enhance the social interaction and it brings people together at the workplace. Self-enhancing humour helps against the stress and strengthens positive attitudes. Sometimes self-enhancing humour is used to improve the image of oneself in front of the colleagues and can be related to neuroticism in the worst case. Aggressive humour manipulates and victimizes. Mild-aggressive humour might have good outcomes when it is used to express disagreement and demand, with a humours tone. Self-defeating humour is often used to get acceptance, but can be seen as a way to reduce the status level. (Romero & Cruthirds 2006, 59-60.)

What good does humour bring to a work-place then? According to Romero and Cruthirds (2006, 60) research shows that it can enhance group cohesiveness, help with the communication, reduce stress, increase creativity, influence the organizational culture, and can also be used as a tool for leadership.

When utilizing humour, some aspects should be taken into consideration. There are ethnic and gender differences and humour should always be used according to the target group. What is fun to one, might be an insult to another. In the worst case humour can turn into humiliation or degradation, and cause distress and arguments in the organization. Using too much humour might also lead to losing credibility or respect. (Romero & Crtuhirds 2006, 64-65.)

4.2.7 The work itself

People do have a need to live up to the expectations of the profession, and to give their best. This is called *professional ethics* and it should be a motivator to cultivate in the work place (Layard 2005, 159). The other important term is *calling*, which means being passionately committed to the work for its own sake, not for other benefits. Calling is often reserved for doctors, priests and scientists, but any job can become a calling. Even a hospital cleaner can see the job critical in healing patients and therefore meaningful, which might lead to a calling. (Seligman 2003, 166.) So it really matters how we see and assess our jobs.

It is also under-estimating to think that all that matters are the results. We do care how the work is done, not only how successful the outcome is (Benz & Frey 2004, 129). One should learn to invest in the process, not the outcome (Rao 2010, 87).

People have a need to be respected (Layard 2005, 227). Therefore low-status jobs make us unhappy (Kahneman & Krueger, 2006, 17). Veenhoven (2010, 216) calls this *the respect occupational prestige* and according to his studies it does have a positive correlation with happiness across all nations. This is closely linked to the social class systems and subgroups existing in many countries such as the U.K. and the U.S.A. The expectations and preferences within social classes surely have influence on the happiness levels too. However, due to the broadness of the concept, discussing the impact of social classes is excluded from this study.

Respect is also one of the main reasons why we want to do our job well. We want to be proud of our job, walk our heads up and gain respect from people around us. However, we do not always have knowledge of how challenging other jobs are. It is hard to respect something you are not familiar with. One way to add understanding and respect at an organization is by job rotation (Manka 2011, 146).

It is not the same what the work is about. Not any job makes us happy. Layard (2005, 225) says that people need to be in control of what they do and to be able to use their creativity to enjoy the work. Every member of the team should have an opportunity to influence the

procedures and make differences on how the work is done (Manka 2011, 146). Benz and Frey (2004) made a study comparing the amount of happiness between employees and the self-employed. They found out, that the self-employed are happier mainly due to the autonomy of the work. For the entrepreneurs in the study, autonomy meant working independently and being able to choose their tasks. Therefore they were able to select tasks they found more interesting and were also able to influence their variety. Benz & Frey highlighted that most often the tasks we choose are more interesting than the tasks we are forced to do. Their study also shows, that even if the salary might be lower and the working hours longer, they are still happier thanks to their autonomy. (Bentz & Frey 2004, 122.) This study shows the importance of having power and rights to influence one's work.

What also matters is the value of work to society. This is especially highlighted by the generation Y. 89 per cent of 1700 Aalto university students believe that the meaningfulness of work is what matters the most. The meaningfulness might mean important consequences to the society or high values on a personal level. (Piha&Poussa 2012.)

An easy job is not desirable: too many routines and simple tasks do not create positive attitudes towards work. Passive attendance is not enough, regardless of the easiness. Being overqualified for the job has net affect on happiness at work. Part of the satisfaction also rises from fulfilling the responsibilities and attaining recognition from the job well done. (Kahneman & Krueger, 2006, 17; Varila & Viholainen 2000, 35, 150.) Work should be challenging enough to keep a person happy, and the outcomes should be measurable. People are the happiest when they are appropriately challenged – goals need to be difficult, but achievable (Gilbert 2012, 87). The purpose and goals of the work as a whole should be clear (Manka 2011, 146).

When in search for creativity at work, having fun and looking for the positive sides of work are encouraged. Dahlén (2008) emphasizes that we should take the opposite angle to look at the topic. He says that creativity makes us happy. People are at their best when they must work hard and have to face dilemmas. Dahlén believes that the balance between knowhow and challenge has a direct impact on our happiness. In one research people were put into new situations, such as washing their hair without water or making notes without a pen and paper. All the participants found new and sometimes even exceptional solutions to these

everyday situations. Apart from being happier, they also found themselves prouder, more certain and valuable than before attending the tests. In most of the research made on creativity, the correlation between happiness and creativity appears. (Dahlén 2008, 42, 46.)

Often an aspect of happiness at work mentioned is flow. Flow was first described by Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi and it means an experience of virtuosity. Layard (2005, 75) calls flow the moment when we loose the sense of time. Seligman specifies it as a "positive emotion about the present with no conscious thought or feeling attached". It cannot be maintained through the whole working day and it might last only short moments. Flow is felt when the challenge and abilities meet. According to research the flow is more likely to be experienced at work than in leisure. This increases the engagement to work. The more flow we have in our lives the happier we are. (Seligman 2003, 173, 175.) However, Ojanen points out that the amount of happiness produced by the flow is dependent on the expectations we have for the outcomes. When the expectations are positive and the results are respected, flow is a real source of happiness and joy. The reward does not destroy the flow if there is no feel of outer control. Flow, testing our knowledge and knowhow, develops us. (Ojanen 2009, 164, 166.) According to Varila and Viholainen (2000, 31) happiness at work is the moment when a person feels the occasion or process meaningful and exceptionally positive. Therefore happiness cannot be felt continuously, despite the attraction and commitment to the job.

Work is very significant to us. We are happier when we are satisfied with our careers, so a successful career does add to happiness. However, this correlation is not as high as the correlation with marriage satisfaction. (Veenhoven 2010, 622.)

4.2.8 Personality and attitudes (among generations)

Positive feelings are naturally dependent on the personality and the attitudes of an individual, therefore a person-centered approach is needed (Warr 2007, 727). Happiness does not necessarily arise despite a pleasant work environment. As individuals we value different things to feel happy. Positive people are more likely to observe positive signs and

vibes, as well as a negative person easily emphasizes neutral stimulations as negative. The more positive we are the more likely we ignore negative aspects and stressful situations at work. (Varila & Viholainen 2000, 75-76.) Pessimistic people also have a higher risk of getting sick or depressed, they also give up more easily and have a lower self-esteem, whereas optimistic people (sometimes called Pollyannas[3]) are more active, spontaneous and healthier (Manka 2011, 65: Ojanen 2009, 32). Veenhoven (2010a, 216) has listed these positive attitudes as follows: inner-control, independence and assertiveness. Also extroverts are bound to be happier than others in many nations (Veenhoven 2010b). These are the attitudes of the Western World, there is a lack of data for the rest.

Different generations value work very diversely. Zemke, Raines and Filipczak (2000) have divided employees into three different categories. These are the baby boom generation, the generation X and the generation Y. The baby boom generation was born in the years from 1946 to 1964. They have high work ethics and they value people by their work. Generation X was born from 1963 to 1979. They are often described as the "all for me now" – generation and they highly value a good salary, possibilities for education and moving forward. Technology is also big part of this generation's work environment. The generation Y does not value the work itself as highly as those two other generations. The generation Y was born from 1980 to 2000 and they appreciate hobbies and social life before work. Their realities are more and more on social and virtual networks. (Manka 2011, 25.) They are often also called the *play-station generation* or the *Internet generation*. However, this is all generalization and should be seen as such.

Research shows similar signs in Finland: the older the person, the higher the respect towards work. Older people regard work as one of the most important aspects of life, even though they have already retired. The generations X and Y do not value work as high, which naturally reflects on their demand for finding the balance between work and private life. (Manka 2011, 26.) But even though there is discussion about the generation Y not valuing work as highly as the baby boomers, they do believe that a successful employer is

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[3] Pollyanna-principle was invented by Matlina and Stang in 1978. Pollyanna (a character created by Eleanor Porter) saw something positive in everything. The Pollyanna-principles include: people finding positive issues more likely to happen than bad, even though they appear as often; free association provides more positive than negative words; people are more likely to remember happy situations than sad and negative. (Ojanen 2009, 178.)

happy. For them success is not dependent on money or a title, but on personal satisfaction and a balance in life. (Piha&Poussa 2012.)

We cannot change other people's behavior and seldom do we have any influence on our boss, colleagues or work-environment, but we can change the way we reflect on incidents and people around us. We can be very negative and complain all the time, or we can add positive thinking and understanding. Too often we only focus on two or three things that are wrong with our work and forget the twenty or thirty things that are actually good about it (Roy 2010, 203). We should start looking at the things that are good with our work more actively. We are also the ones responsible for our endurance and stress control − we cannot expect our boss to take liability of them. A healthy diet, sufficient exercise, rest and social activity off duty are our personal options of adding happiness at work (Manka 2011, 200). The activity and involvement has been proven to add happiness into our lives, so being active at the work place increases our happiness at work (Veenhoven 2010, 622).

What also matters is how we deal with stress. Stress is often seen as a negative feeling, however, it has an upside too: it allows us to grow. As Achor (2012) says: "Stress is not just an obstacle to growth; it can be the fuel for it". Our attitude towards stress influences our happiness. According to Achor, research has shown that people seeing stress enhancing, not diminishing their performance, are happier and they have fewer health problems. Since stress is unavoidable at work, it is better to change the attitude to it. Positive thinking helps. (Achor 2012, 102.)

Very often we compare ourselves to others, especially to those who are doing better than we are. Gergen's study in the 1970's showed that a comparison proving a person being better than others, can enhance self-esteem even for a couple of months, so long-term influences are possible (Ojanen2009, 44). Can this study made 40 years ago still be valid? Both Layard (2005) and Seligman (2003) are sure comparison is a way to unhappiness. "One secret of happiness is to ignore comparisons with people who are more successful than you are: always compare downwards, not upwards" says Layard (2005, 47). Seligman (2003, 14) encourages to concentrate on one's own goals and to forget those of the others: "authentic happiness derives from raising the bar for yourself, not rating yourself against

others". Competition might raise the results, but increases the risk of burnout (Ojanen 2009, 172). Therefore comparison and competition should not be encouraged at a work place.

5 Research and findings

5.1 The aims of the empirical study

The main aim of this study is to find out if there are connections between work and happiness in the data collected by World Value Survey, WVS, in the years 2005-2008, and if the profession or employment status have effects on happiness. Other factors such as the correlation of age, sex, education and income are examined too. I also want to find out what kind of values people have towards work. Those values have influence on happiness at work, as has been discussed in the earlier chapters. Among these issues I also want to examine if this survey is suitable for measuring happiness at work.

The main research questions are (not in order of importance):

- ❖ How happy people are and what aspects have an influence on their happiness?
- ❖ How important is work to people and does the importance of work have effect on their happiness?
- ❖ How highly is work appreciated and is there a connection between the appreciation of work and happiness?
- ❖ What is important to people when in search for a work and does this have effect on happiness?
- ❖ Are there connections between the quality of work and happiness?
- ❖ Are there differences between the responses in Finland, Italy or globally?

The focus is on two nations: Finland and Italy. One aim is to find out if there are differences on happiness levels in these countries. Since the samples diminish into few dozens of responders in some cases, I have decided to compare the global answers as well. I will not separate the 54 countries included in the 5th wave, but handle the global data as one (the list of the countries in appendix 3). This way generalizations according to the results are possible to made, even in those cases where Finnish or Italian samples are few.

5.2 The background and context of the empirical research

This research combines two research methods: interviewing and surveys. Both of these methods are highly recommended especially when the purpose of the study is to find out what people think, feel and believe (Hirsjärvi et al. 2004, 174).

Since the data is collected by WVS, it is secondary data. Secondary data is valuable when wanting to collect global data from a wider number of respondents. The WVS provides large and high-quality data, which would be unfeasible to collect by an individual researcher. One meaningful advantage is also the fact that secondary data has a certain degree of validity and reliability, which are not always needed to be re-examined by the researcher. (Hirsjärvi et al. 2004, 174). However, I am aware that the survey was not created just to measure happiness at work and does not only concentrate on aspects focusing on work. The respondents have not been thinking of their work solely, when estimating their level of happiness. Since the data was collected by somebody else, it does not directly respond to the research questions in this study. This is quite common with secondary data. Therefore some reframing is needed. (Hirsjärvi et al. 2004, 175.) In this study, I have excluded a vast number of questions and concentrated on only those valid to my interest and focus (see appendix 2.).

I have not found articles of happiness at work based on this WVS data. This does not exclude the possibility of previous research on the topic though. It is quite possible, that due to the large number of data in research institutes, there is unanalyzed data to be used.

Using secondary data is also an economical solution and it does not devalue the quality of research. (Hirsjärvi et al. 2004, 175.)

The cons of using secondary data are e.g. the impossibility to influence the collected data, difficulty in handling secondary data and the lack of data based on true life-situations (Hirsjärvi 2004, 178). It is true that by deciding to use data from WVS I wasn't able to influence the questions asked, but since some of the questions were already concentrating on the same topics I was interested in, the use of the data was argued. The data from WVS was not difficult to handle. Most of the background information was well reported and explained. Since the data was easily downloaded from the Internet for free of charge, it was extremely consumer friendly. Also, the data being collected by many academic, experienced scientists around the world, it was truly based on real situations in life. By doing my own survey I could have never accessed the data this vast and reality-based. The international comparison would have also been almost impossible, or at least based on fewer respondents.

The data was collected by interviewing a sample of citizens from different nations. Interviewing is a unique way of collecting data, because of the direct interaction with the respondents. This directness might, however, lessen the credibility of the results, since respondents might have a social pressure to give certain answers. According to Foddy (1995) this is especially noted with questions concerning activity as a citizen, knowledge of current topics, morality and criminal acts. The contextuality and situativity might also have an impact on the results, as does the cultural concept too. (Hirsjärvi et al. 2004, 195-196). Within these questions the social pressure or thought expectedness from an interviewer should be considered. People might want to pretend to be happier than they are, as has been discussed in chapter 2.3. They also might estimate their incomes higher than they actually are.

The interviews have been highly structured. This means that a survey has been prepared and the order and form of the questions are followed strictly. Also the selection of the answers is planned in advance. This makes it possible to ask exactly the same questions from all respondents and to compare the results meaningfully. The main reason for using a questionnaire often is that it is the easiest, fastest and most efficient way to collect data. It

makes asking different questions on various topics possible. (Valli 2001, 9.) Surveys are often used in Gallup polls, and treated quantitatively (Hirsjärvi 2004, 182). The data collection in this research is a typical sample of survey, in a sense that it collects wide data of values from many respondents and is measured in a quantitative way.

The problems of surveys are typical as follows: it is not possible to know the level of the seriousness and focus of the respondent, the options for answers might be invalid and the respond rate might be too low (Hirsjärvi 2004, 184.) WVS has interviewed the respondents individually in order to minimize those problems. At the end of the questionnaire there is also a possibility to code the observed level of a respondent's interest during the interview. The interviewer also controls the number of misunderstandings.

In the questionnaire, the questions were of two different types. Some of the questions were multiple-choice questions for the respondents to choose from the given answers. The other questions were closed-ended questions. The closed-ended questions were mainly of a continuous type, where the respondent was presented with a continuous scale, from 1 to 5 or 10. Some questions also included statements for the respondent to indicate agreements with appropriate numbers. There were 249 questions in total in the survey, but since most of them were not work-related, I have selected only those questions that ask about work or values towards it. I have also included background questions such as demographics. (See appendix 2.)

The main focus of this study is in happiness at work. However, as discussed in the first chapter, happiness is a mixture of many different features and domains. One aspect cannot be studied without understanding a possible correlation of others. Therefore the influences of age, sex and education are evaluated in this study.

I have chosen two countries for a closer examination: Finland and Italy. Both of these countries belong to the European Union, but vary economically, culturally, geographically and governmentally. I wanted to create a juxtaposition between the North and the South, assuming there are differences in findings. Finland was selected, since it is my home country and Italy, due to Greece's absence in the 5th wave and the lack of several important questions in the Spanish survey.

When comparing the results of all 54 countries included in the 5th wave I realized that the countries considering work very important in life were the poorest countries, such as Burkina Faso and Ghana. In those countries work does matter to the respondents more than e.g. in these selected countries. However, as discussed before, in poor countries having a job is vital in order to survive. The situation is therefore very different compared to these two European countries. There are similarities but differences between the countries too. Since I did not solely want to find out if work adds happiness or not, but also to find out what aspects correlate with happiness at work, I wanted to choose countries where work is not so much about meeting the ends but about the self-actualization as described by Maslow. Both of these countries have a social security system, but they do vary.

According to the latest study by Helliwell and Wang (2012) Finland is the second happiest country in the world and Italy holds the 28th place. The decision to select these two countries is also supported by an earlier study by Helliwell. He analyzed data from earlier waves of WVS and divided all countries into 6 categories. Finland was in the Scandinavian division and Italy among industrial countries (among e.g. Spain and Portugal). He saw differences between these two countries and therefore placed them into diverse categories. (Helliwell 2003, 339.) I have listed some main facts of both of these countries (appendix 4.). Explaining and investigating cultural differences and their influence on happiness does require more focus on cultural differences than this thesis can include. Therefore I will leave that to other studies, but include some facts for the reader to draw their own conclusions.

The interviews were conducted during the autumn 2005. The total number of respondents was 1014 in Finland and 1012 in Italy. In Finland the survey was conducted by Suomen Gallup Oy and the respondents were chosen by sex and age quotas from all parts of Finland, excluding Åland. In Italy the person in charge of the survey was Professor Rezo Gubert from the University of Trento, and the survey was conducted by Centro Ricerche Sociali. Respondents were chosen from the population by age (18-74). In the report of Italy, the unrepresentedness of people with a lower education was acknowledged. The interviews were face-to-face interviews and made in Finnish (Finland) and Italian (Italy). In all the countries included in the global data the results are collected by similar methods. More information about the data collection will be at the end of this chapter.

The empirical research can be divided into four sections: 1) happiness, 2) the values towards work, 3) important aspects when looking for a job and 4) the quality of work. I am interested in finding out if there are connections between these variables and happiness. One purpose is also to see if certain variables such as age, sex and profession have effects on these connections. I want to find out if working conditions and values have an effect on happiness and also whether this survey is suitable for measuring happiness at work. Also the possible effects of education and income on happiness are analyzed, even though they do not hold the main interest in this study.

1) happiness

In the first section I am interested in finding out how happy people are and what aspects have an influence on their happiness. Happiness of the responder is asked among the first questions of the survey. The question is:

❖ Taking all things together, would you say you are
1= very happy, 2= rather happy, 3= not very happy, 4= not at all happy

The analysed variables are age, sex, education, profession, employment and the income of the household. The variance analysis, as many other analyses too, require parametric data, which follows the Gaussian curve, and the answers do not fill the requirements. Due to the nonparametric nature of the data, the possible effects are analysed by using both the Kruskal-Wallis and crosstabs analyses. The Kruskal-Wallis is used to show the connections and the crosstabs analyses to demonstrate the connections and to detect differences among variables. Differences between Finnish, Italian and global data are also examined. The answers from all responders are included in the analysis, since the main purpose is to find differences among groups, not only those working at the moment of the survey.

To make the comparison between the variables easier, I have united the very happy people with quite happy people and not very happy with not happy at all. That means that the answers are recoded as 1= happy (values 1-2) and 2 = unhappy (values 3-4). I am aware that it might be difficult to find the real correlations between happiness and work, since only every tenth of the Finnish and Italian respondents (83 people in Finland and 101 in Italy) regard themselves as unhappy. Therefore, I have also separated those who are very

happy from the ones who have responded 2= rather happy. The very happy results are also shown in some of the tables.

2) the values towards work

This section is divided into two: the importance of and the appreciation for work. It is important to exclude those who are not working at the time of the survey, since the aim of the study is to focus on happiness at work. The responses from e.g. retired people or students would distort the results. Therefore, only those who are employed are included in analysis in both sections. N in Finland is 515, in Italy 529 and on the global scale 32 800.

The importance of work is asked in one of the first questions in the survey. Since focusing on work, I have selected only the question concerning work into closer study. The question is:

- ❖ Indicate how important work is in your life?

  1= very important, 2= rather important, 3= not very important, 4= not at all important.

The meaning of this analysis is to see how important work is to people and whether the importance of work has an effect on happiness. E.g. are people happier when work is important to them compared to those to whom work is not important? Also the influences of age, sex and profession are examined. Since the data is nonparametric, the logistic regression analysis and the crosstabs analysis are used to detect and demonstrate relationships and differences. For the logistic regression analysis variables are recoded as dummy variables, that is 1 if work is important (values 1-2) and 0 if not (values 3-4). To find out those who really value the importance of work very high, I have divided the responders into very important (value 1) and the others (values 2-4), and used the crosstabs analysis to find out if those who find work very important are any happier or unhappier than those to whom work means less. Differences between Finnish, Italian and global data are also examined.

The appreciation for work is measured by five statements (v50 to v54), which are:

- ❖ To fully develop your talents, you need to have a job.
- ❖ It is humiliating to receive money without working for it.

❖ People who don't work become lazy.

❖ Work is a duty towards society.

❖ Work should always come first, even if it means less spare time.

    1= strongly agree, 2= agree, 3=neither, 4=disagree, 5= strongly disagree

These statements seem to measure the same thing: the high appreciation for work. Since the statements are rated with a similar scale from agreement to disagreement, it is worth creating one common variable for them if the correlations between the statements are similar enough. Cronbach alpha (0,7) indicates at least acceptable internal consistency and therefore the statements are included into one variable: Appreciation for work (values 1-3). The purpose is to find out if appreciation for work and happiness correlate, and if there are differences between sexes, age groups or professions. Since the data is nonparametric, the logistic regression analysis and the crosstabs analysis are used to detect and demonstrate relationships and differences. The values of 5-scale are recoded for three, that is 1 = agree (values 1-2), 2 = neither (value 3) and disagree (values 4-5). Differences between Finnish, Italian and global data are also examined.

3) important aspects when looking for a job

One valid question to the happiness research in this survey is the question V48. It asks what the respondents consider as the most important aspect if looking for a job. The four options were given:

1) A good income
2) A safe job
3) Working with people you like
4) Doing an important work

The respondents were asked to choose one of these options, regardless of the respondent looking for a work or not. In this analysis I have included those working at the time of survey and also those unemployed, since they presumptuously are looking for a job and are therefore valid to this analysis[4]. First the relationship between the options and happiness is analyzed by the Kruskal-Wallis analysis and then the connections of each option are analysed by the logistic regression analysis to explain the choices. All four options are

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[4] This means that included are: full-time employees, part-time employees, self-employed and unemployed.

recoded as individual dummy variables, that is 1 if the option is selected as the first choice and 0 if not. Differences between Finnish, Italian and global data are also examined.

4) the quality of work

In chapter 4 we have discussed some aspects that create happiness at work. The quality of the job, such as the level of independence and creativity are found to be the sources of happiness. In the survey the quality of work is questioned by three questions:

1. Are the tasks you perform at work mostly manual or mostly congnitive?
2. Are the tasks you perform at work mostly routine tasks or mostly creative tasks?
3. How much indepence do you have in performing your tasks at work?

The responders were asked to scale their answers on a scale of 1 to 10 with the opposite options standing for 1 and 10. The purpose is to see, if there are any connections with the quality of work and happiness. The influence of sex, age and profession are also examined. Kruskal-Wallis is used to show the connections and the crosstabs analysis to demonstrate the connections and to detect differences between variables. Only responses from those working at the time of the survey were selected[5]. The answers are recoded as follows: 1 (values 1-3)= manual, routine or no independence, 2 (values 4-7) =neither and 3 (values 8-10)= cognitive, creative or independent. Differences between Finnish, Italian and global data are also examined.

World Value Survey

The empirical part of the thesis is based on the data from World Value Survey. WVS is a non-profit organization, seated in Stockholm. It consists of a network of scientists around the globe working in collaboration with European Values Study. Together they have executed five waves of surveys in 97 societies since 1981, and the ongoing, sixth wave of 2010-2012 will conclude 30 years of value studies around the globe. (WVSa, 2-4.)

All the scientists included are recruited from each country studied. This adds extra value to interpreting the findings with insiders' insights of society. The values are gathered by face-

to-face interviews with ordinary citizens by local field organizations and supervised by academic researchers. All interviews, using a standardized questionnaire, are translated into the local language. The questions measure values concerning religion, gender roles, work motivations, democracy, good governance, social capital, political participation, tolerance of other groups, environmental protection and subjective wellbeing. To guarantee the level of quality, strict rules and procedures have been created and are followed. (WVSa, 3-4.)

Since the empirical data of people's values and believes covers a vast number of the world population, the findings have been reported in leading media, such as Time, Newsweek and The Economist. Also the UN Development Report uses WVS data and findings. The data is free of charge and can be downloaded form the websites by anyone. The purpose of the use is questioned when downloading the data. (WVSa, 4.) The fact that the data can be accessed by anyone and the information is in an easily understood form adds great transparency to the organization. They truly want to offer the chance for anyone to have access to the results.

The mission of WVS is to add understanding on to the believes, values and motivations of people around the world. By surveys, social scientists and policy-makers can understand worldviews of the citizens better. All the results are disseminated to social scientists, policy-makers and the general public, by a WVS Principal Investigator of the participating country. WVS organizes also meetings and communication systems in order to create a base for co-operation, discuss and sharing of findings. (WVSa, 3).

Table 4 Five waves of surveys by World Value Survey (WVSa, 5).

Wave	Years	Countries	Population	Respondents
1	1981-1984	20	4,700,000,000	25,000
2	1989-1993	42	5,300,000,000	61,000
3	1994-1998	52	5,700,000,000	75,000
4	1999-2004	67	6,100,000,000	96,000
5	2005-2008	54	6,700,000,000	77,000
Four-wave aggregate data file		80		257.000

Table 4 shows the figures of all five waves conducted by WVS since 1981. This study concentrates on the fifth wave with 77 000 respondents in 54 countries in the years 2005-2008. When talking about the data in this study, it is cited as World Values Survey 2005, 2009, the official data file, v.20090901, unless other sources are mentioned.

5.3 The reliability and validity

The interviews were conducted several years ago. It is quite likely that if repeated today, the results would be different. Happiness fluctuates with time and political and economic changes might have influences on the happiness of people (Veenhoven 2010b). However, the results of this wave stay the same and are downloaded online by anyone interested. Therefore the data stays unchanged and the results should be the same if analyzed today. Some of the recoding and regrouping might have caused the loss of data. Also, if the data is recoded differently, changes in the analysis might be detected.

Happiness was asked about quite at the beginning, so that the other questions could not have influenced so much. However, the interviewers' presence might have led people to rate it higher. The same influence might be possible considering the income of the household. Though, the survey has been the same for all responders.

The sample is not grand if compared to the populations of the countries. In some cases the results were based on only a few dozens of answers, therefore too much generalization cannot be made. However, the data is used quite widely in other, much more respected, studies and therefore the reliability of the data should be reasonable. Also the use of the total data, including 54 countries, increases the reliability.

As discussed before, this survey was not exclusively created to measure happiness and even less to measure happiness at work. The responders have not been necessarily thinking of their work when replying the questions. Therefore the expectations aren't to find simple truths or all-explaining discoveries concerning happiness at work. The purpose is more to

see, if there are connections between happiness and answers to work related questions. I also want to find out if these kinds of surveys can be used in measuring happiness at work.

5.4 Happiness and correlating factors

Looking at the results on the feeling of happiness we can easily see that most of the respondents from Finland (M= 1,80, SD= ,609) are happy. Around 92% of all Finnish respondents correspond to be at least quite happy. The Italian respondents are nearly as happy (M= 1,93, SD= ,568), since only 10 % of them reply being not very happy or not at all happy. Only 1 Finnish respondent and 2 Italian respondents have chosen the option "I don't know", as have 0,7 % of all respondents[6].
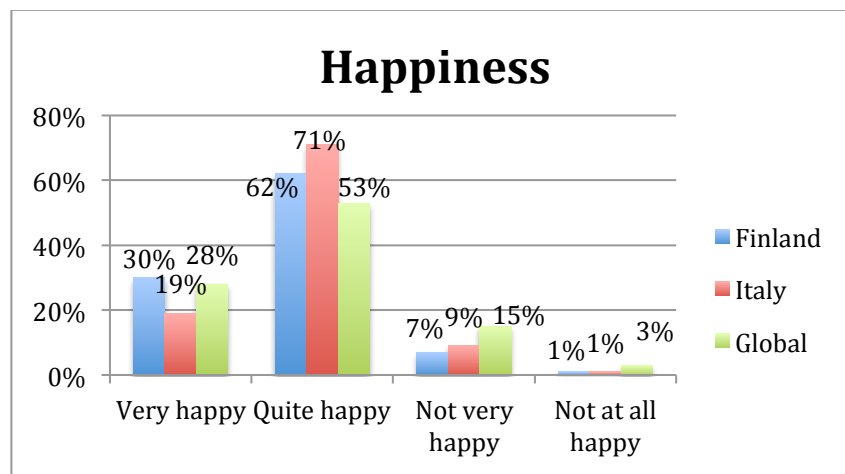
Figure 8 Happiness of all respondents

These results very much follow the global scale of the fifth wave of the survey. When looking at the results of all 54 countries together (M= 1,91, SD= ,727), we can see that Finnish responders are happier, and there are less unhappy Italians when compared globally, but the average of happiness among Italian responders follows the global results.

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[6] This supports Veenhoven's theory of people knowing what happiness is and being able to rate it, since "I don't know"-option is so seldom selected (Veenhoven 2010, 612).

As discussed in the earlier chapters certain aspects have influence on happiness. First we will have a look at the happiness and variables correlating with it. The variables are age, sex, education, profession, employment and the income of the household. The variables were chosen due to the adequacy to the aims and interests of this study.

Age

The respondents are separated into three age groups: 15-29[7] years, 30-49 years and 50-98 years of age. As the table below shows, the age does matter.

Table 5 Happiness and age (%)

	Finland			Italy			Global		
Age	Happy	Very happy	N	Happy	Very happy	N	Happy	Very happy	N
15-29	96	39	196	94	24	193	85	37	19 119
30-49	93	37	366	92	20	387	84	34	26 220
50-98	89	25	451	87	20	426	80	33	21 054
	p<0,01, Cramer's V:< 0,3	p<0,01, Cramer's V:< 0,2		p<0,05, Cramer's V = 0,1	p>0,1, Cramer's V < 0,1		p<0,01, Cramer's V: = 0,06	p<0,01, Cramer's V: = 0,035	

In both countries and in total young people are the happiest and happiness decreases within age. However, since the Cramer's V- test shows a rather weak connection, especially in Italy and on the global scale, strong arguments cannot be made. However, the test result from the Kruskall-Wallis analysis supports the correlation between age and happiness in all three cases (p<0,05). The number of respondents in the age groups is unequal and this might influence the results. Also if we look at the percentages among very happy responders, the Finnish and global results suggest that people are more likely very happy the younger they are.

Sex

These analyses find no supporting evidences of sex correlating with happiness. The Kruskall-Wallis analysis shows no correlation between sex and happiness in neither of the

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[7] According to WVS, interviews were conducted to adults only, that is people older than 18 years of age. However, in some African countries people older than 16 were interviewed too. This shows in the age groups, even though all the respondents in Finland and Italy were adults.

countries, nor in the global data (p>0,05 in all cases). However, when we look at the percentages of the very happy responses in the Finnish and global data (table 6), the results suggest that women are more likely very happy than men.

Table 6 Happiness and sex (%)

	Finland			Italy			Global		
	Happy	Very happy	N	Happy	Very happy	N	Happy	Very happy	N
Male	91	26	489	90	22	503	83	34	31 854
Female	93	37	524	90	19	503	82	35	34 712
	p>0,1 Cramer's V=0,043	p<0,001 Cramer's V<0,2		p>0,9 Cramer's V = 0,003	p>0,4 Cramer's V = 0,03		p>0,05 Cramer's V= 0,007	p<0,05 Cramer's V= 0,009	

Education

This study shows that the more educated the person is, the more likely s/he is happy. In both of the countries happiness increases with education, especially when comparing the responses of people with only primary school studies to others. People with primary school education or less, are more likely to be unhappy than people with university studies. However, in Italy there are no differences in happiness between those with university preparatory studies and university studies.

Table 7 Happiness and education (%)

Education	Finland			Italy			Global		
	Happy	Very happy	N	Happy	Very happy	N	Happy	Very happy	N
Primary school	84	26	286	82	19	139	77	33	20 884
Secondary/ vocational	94	34	389	88	20	259	83	35	16 731
Secondary/ university preparatory	98	26	80	93	22	325	84	36	15 095
University	96	36	257	93	20	271	89	35	13 445
	p<0,001 Cramer's V<0,3	p>0,05 Cramer's V<0,1		p<0,001 Cramer's V= 0,1	p>0,8 Cramer's V< 0,1		p<0,001 Cramer's V=0,1	p<0,001 Cramer's V<0,1	

The same pattern appears when we look at the results on the global scale. Even though Cramer's V -test repeatedly shows less than a reasonable connection between the variables, the test results from the Kruskall-Wallis analysis support a significant correlation between

education and happiness (p<0,001). Also, when we compare the percentages among the very happy responses, the results from the global data also suggest that people are more likely very happy when they have continued their studies after primary school.

Profession

The profession correlates significantly with happiness in the Italian and global data, but there is no correlation in the Finnish data[8]. In the Italian data those working for the army or as an employer are less likely unhappy than the others, and the least happy group is foremen/supervisors. Professionals and office workers are happier than manual and farmer/agricultural workers. There are no significant differences among the very happy responses and the others. Similar results to the Italian ones occur in the global data too, except that farmer/agricultural workers have the highest percentage of unhappy responders. In the global data farmer/agricultural workers are also less likely very happy and employers most likely very happy when compared to other professions. The professions can be found in more detail in the appendix 1.

Table 8 Happiness and profession (%)

	Finland			Italy			Global		
Profession	Happy	Very happy	N	Happy	Very happy	N	Happy	Very happy	N
Employer	95	40	42	96	27	73	89	39	3 346
Professional	97	32	91	91	24	149	89	37	5 285
Supervising office worker	98	43	57	94	28	72	90	38	2 397
Office worker	95	38	116	91	18	156	88	33	5 166
Foremen/supervisor	100	57	7	74	24	23	84	32	729
Manual worker	96	30	173	86	20	208	81	34	14 733
Farmer/agricultural worker	100	27	15	87	15	39	79	31	6 068
Army/security	100	0	3	100	8	12	90	38	719
	p>0,9 Cramer's V =0,70	p>0,3 Cramer's V <0,2		p<0,02 Cramer's V < 0,2	p>0,4 Cramer's V < 0,2		p<0,001 Cramer's V < 0,2	p<0,001 Cramer's V < 0,1	

However, since the number of respondents between the groups varies enormously (e.g. compare manual workers and army/security) and Cramer's V –test finds no strong connection, some caution with conclusions is needed. What is important to notice is that

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[8] Kruskal-Wallis test results: Finland 0,950, Italy 0,006 and global <0,001.

half of the respondents are missing from this analysis in the Finnish data. N in total is only 504, whereas it is 732 in the Italian data and 38 443 in the global data. This indicates that the profession is asked only from those working currently, even though the question is meant for everyone. An other explanation is, that the options are not suitable and the respondents have had to choose "other" as they response. In any event, lots of answers are missing here and the use of the Finnish data is slightly questionable.

Since Veenhoven has found out that skilled manual workers are more likely to be happy than unskilled manual workers, I compared three different groups (skilled, semi-skilled and unskilled manual workers) and their happiness rates. There was no correlation with the skills and happiness in the Finnish data (KW p >0,6) but in Italian and global data the correlation occurred (KW p<0,05). There are no significant differences among the very happy responses.

Table 9 Happiness and the skills of a manual worker (%)

	Finland			Italy			Global		
	Happy	Very happy	N	Happy	Very happy	N	Happy	Very happy	N
Skilled manual workers	96	31	135	85	22	87	84	34	6 670
Semi-skilled manual workers	96	31	27	95	24	61	82	33	3 570
Unskilled manual workers	91	28	11	77	24	60	76	34	4 493
	p>0,6 Cramer's V < 0,1	p>0,7 Cramer's V < 0,1		p>0,3 Cramer's V <0,2	p>0,05 Cramer's V =0,2		p<0,001 Cramer's V <0,1	p>0,7 Cramer's V <0,1	

Since the correlation is the most significant among the global data it can be generalized that unskilled manual workers are more likely unhappy than more skilled workers. Even though the connection is statistically significant it is very weak.

Employment

Most happiness studies often highlight that one of the greatest sources of unhappiness is unemployment. Therefore I have divided all the respondents according to their employment status into two groups: the employed and the unemployed according to the division in the

questionnaire. The results show that unemployed people are more likely to be unhappy than employed people. There are also more very happy responders among employed people in both Finnish and global data.

Table 10 Employment status and happiness (%)

	Finland			Italy			Global		
Employment status	Happy	Very happy	N	Happy	Very happy	N	Happy	Very happy	N
Unemployed	87	29	498	88	19	421	79	35	28 345
Employed	96	35	515	92	22	541	86	36	34 322
	$p<0,001$ Cramer's V$<0,3$	$p=0,05$ Cramer's V$<0,1$		$p>0,05$ Cramer's V$<0,1$	$p>0,2$ Cramer's V$<0,1$		$p<0,01$ Cramer's V$<0,1$	$p<0,05$ Cramer's V$<0,1$	

Even though the Cramer's V –test shows no strong connection, the test result from Kruskall-Wallis analyses supports significant relationship between the employment status and happiness in Finland and on the global level ($p<0,001$). The employment situation does not correlate with happiness in Italy (Kruskal-Wallis $p>0,05$).

Since almost half of the respondents are unemployed in Finland (the total of unhappy people was 83 and 63 of these are unemployed), it is worth having a closer look at the employment statuses behind the Finnish respondents. Comparison with global results is also sensible.

Table 11 Detailed employment status and happiness (%)

Employment status	Finland			Italy			Global		
	Happy	Very happy	N	Happy	Very happy	N	Happy	Very happy	N
Full-time employee[9]	97	36	433	92	22	321	87	34	21 417
Part-time employee[10]	90	27	41	92	21	47	84	36	4 333
Self-employed	98	33	41	93	20	173	83	36	8 572
Retired	86	23	278	86	18	202	76	33	8 387
Housewife	98	60	41	88	18	89	84	34	8 470
Student	98	32	84	96	19	68	85	41	5 057
Unemployed	77	23	86	87	20	62	72	32	6 431
	$p<0,001$ Cramer's V: $< 0,3$	$p<0,001$ Cramer's V: $< 0,2$		$p>0,2$ Cramer's V: $< 0,1$	$p>0,9$ Cramer's V: $< 0,1$		$p<0,001$ Cramer's V: $< 0,2$	$p<0,001$ Cramer's V: $< 0,1$	

[9] Working hours per week 30 or more
[10] Less than 30 working hours per week

As the results show (table 11), part-time employees are more likely to be unhappy than full-time employees, whereas students and housewives seem to be equally happy. The unhappiest group (by percentages) of all is unemployed people, around every fourth of them is unhappy. Retired people are also less happy than other groups. These results support differences between the groups, which supports connections between happiness and the employment status. If we look at the results of very happy responses, housewives are very happy in the Finnish data and students in the global data. The unemployed are less likely very happy than the others in both Finnish and global data.

Income of the household

In the earlier chapter we discussed the income and its influence on happiness. Money does provide happiness, until certain level has been reached. In the questionnaire the money aspect was asked as the yearly income of the household, which includes salaries and benefits and other sources of income in total per household. Since it is not about the respondent's salary only and cannot be clearly linked with happiness at work, it is examined in this chapter as one possible source of overall happiness. The scales are country specific, therefore the division differs in each country. The ladders are the same though; therefore comparing the results of all three is possible.
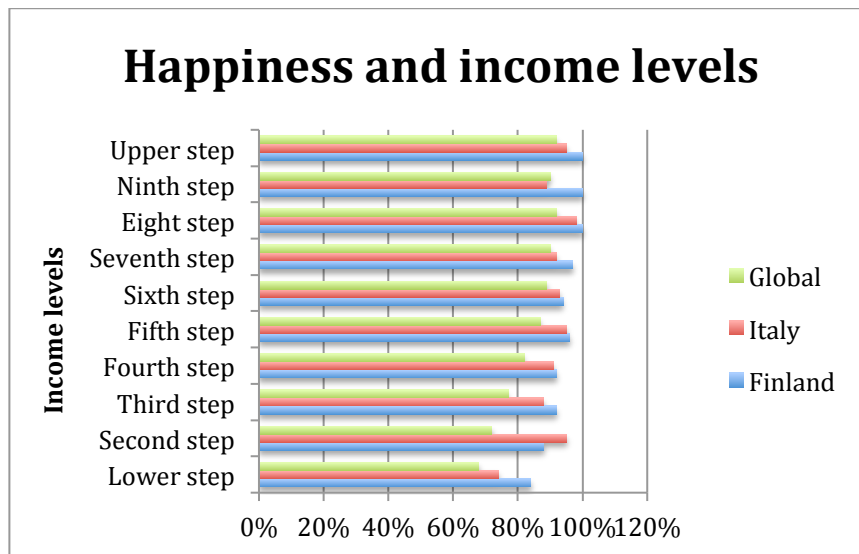
Figure 9 Income levels and happiness

When the income levels arise, happiness does too, until it reaches a certain level (figure 9). Those on the upper income step are obviously happier than those on the lowest step. However, after the seventh step happiness levels fluctuate little. This can especially be seen on the global data and least in the Italian data. If we look at the number of very happy responders and their income levels, we can see that there is no connection between the income and happiness in the Italian data, but Finnish and global data show that there are differences among income steps (figure 10). The number of very happy responders grows among the steps in the global data, but in the Finnish data those on the eight step are more likely very happy than those on the upper step. Those on the second step are more likely very happy than those on the sixth step. This suggests that money makes Finnish people happy but not necessarily *happier*.
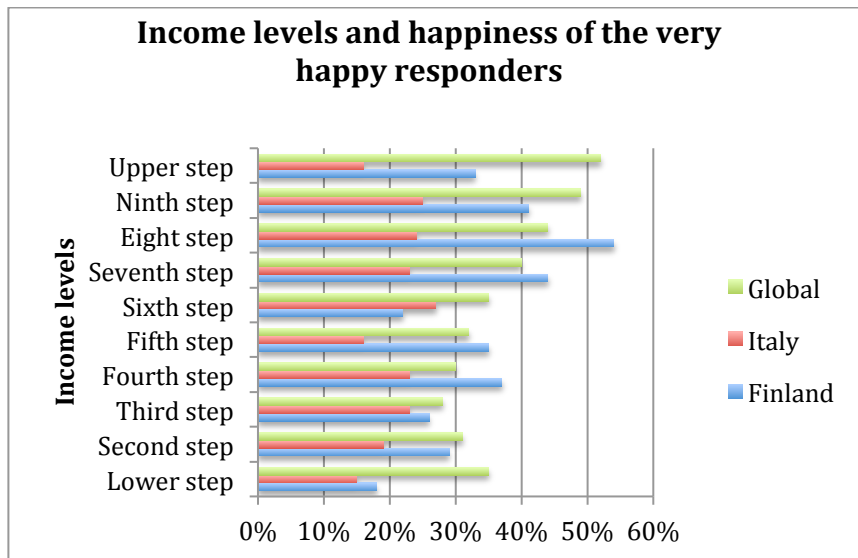
Figure 10 Income levels and happiness of the very happy responders

Finland: Cramer's V= 0,2, p<0,001

Italy: Cramer's V: < 0,1, p>0,8

global: Cramer's V: < 0,2, p<0,001

Since the scale is country specific, it is impossible to compare global income levels due to the differences in currency and income levels. But if we look at the euro-levels in table 12, happiness increases with the income in both of the countries. Households with a yearly income less than 11.000 € (Finland) and 15.000€ (Italy) are more likely to be unhappy than households with income more than 70.000 € (Finland) and 80.000€ (Italy).

Table 12 Yearly income of the household and happiness, Finland and Italy (%)

Yearly income of the household, Finland	Happy	N	Yearly income of the household, Italy	Happy	N
Less than 11.000 €	84	131	Less than 15.000 €	75	125
11.000 -17.999 €	88	159	15.001 -25.000€	92	208
18.000 -31.999 €	92	257	25.001 -35.000 €	92	117
32.000 -48.999 €	95	169	35.001-47.000 €	93	108
49.000 – 69.999 €	98	142	47.001– 80.000 €	94	92
More than 70.000 €	100	67	More than 80.000 €	95	20
p<0,001, Cramer's V: < 0,3[11]			p<0,001 Cramer's V: < 0,3		

The rates of income were coded slightly differently into the data, therefore the comparison between countries is harder to make. The happiness decrease is however, more straightforward in Finland than in Italy, as was detected in the chart before. In the latter the greatest difference in happiness is between the lowest income group and the others. Despite reasonably low Cramer's V test results, the results from the Kruskall-Wallis analysis support a strong connection between income and happiness in both of the countries (p<0,001). It is also worth pointing out that ¾ of all those 83 unhappy Finnish people in total have the household income less than 32.000 €/ a year.

5.5 Work: importance and appreciation

WVS asked responders certain questions about their values towards work. One of the aims of this research is also to look at those values and see if they correlate with happiness, and also to compare possible similarities or differences between the countries.

5.5.1 Work is important

First of all it is worth noticing that work is important to all responders: nearly all of them value work either very or rather important. Therefore work is very much as important in

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[11] The results for global data are as follows: p<0,001, Cramer's V = 0,2

Finland as globally, but as the graph below shows, the importance of work is less extreme in Finland than in Italy or on the global scale.
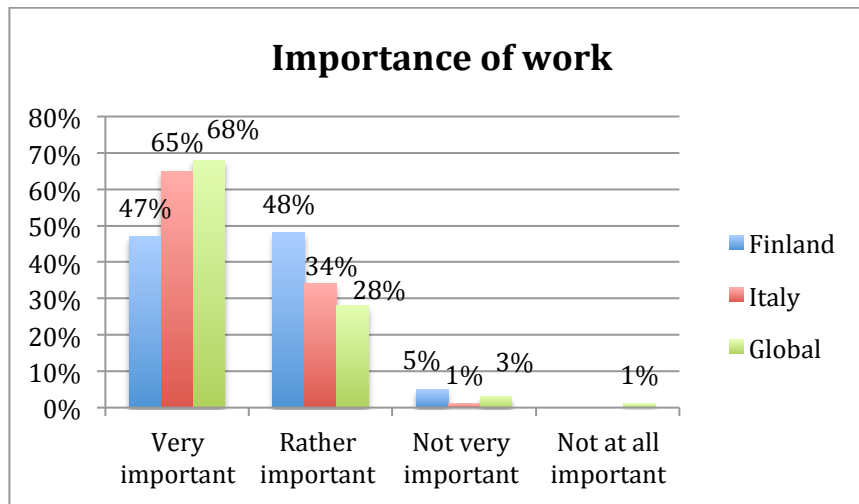
Figure 11 Importance of work

Does the importance of work correlate with happiness? Yes and no. According to the results of logistic regression analyses there is no correlation in the Italian data but among the Finnish and the global responses the importance of work and happiness do correlate (table 13). Those to whom work is not important are more likely to be unhappy, although the model explains only 6 % of the variation in the Finnish data and 0,2 % in the global data. The importance of work has been recoded into two variables: important (options 1 and 2) and unimportant (3 and 4) and unimportance is compared to importance.

Table 13 Connections between importance of work and happiness

	B	Wald	Sig.	Odds Ratio	
Finland	-1,969	12,343	0,000***	0,140	Nagelkerke R= 0,064
Italy	-0,661	0,366	0,542	0,516	Nagelkerke R= 0,001
Global	-0,428	34,459	0,000***	0,652	Nagelkerke R= 0,002

***p<0,001
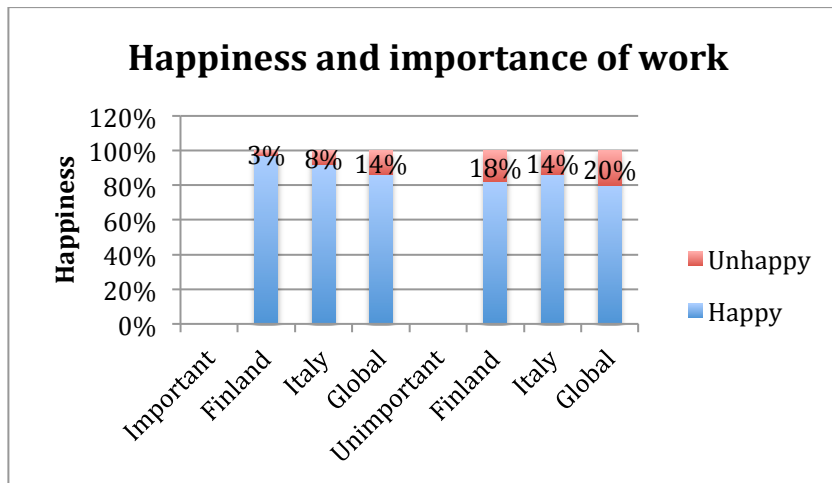
Figure 12 Importance of work and happiness

Finland: Cramer's V: < 0,2, p<0,001

Italy: Cramer's V: < 0,1, p>0,5,

global: Cramer's V: < 0,1, p<0,001

However, if we want to separate those who really see work as important in their lives from those to whom it might matter but is, nonetheless not highly important, we should divide the responders into two groups: 1) those who find work very important and 2) the others. Neither crosstabs analyses nor the Kruskal-Wallis analysis shows a significant connection between happiness and work being very important ($p>0,05$ in all cases). As we can see from figure 13, the percentage of the unhappy responders stays exactly the same in all three data.
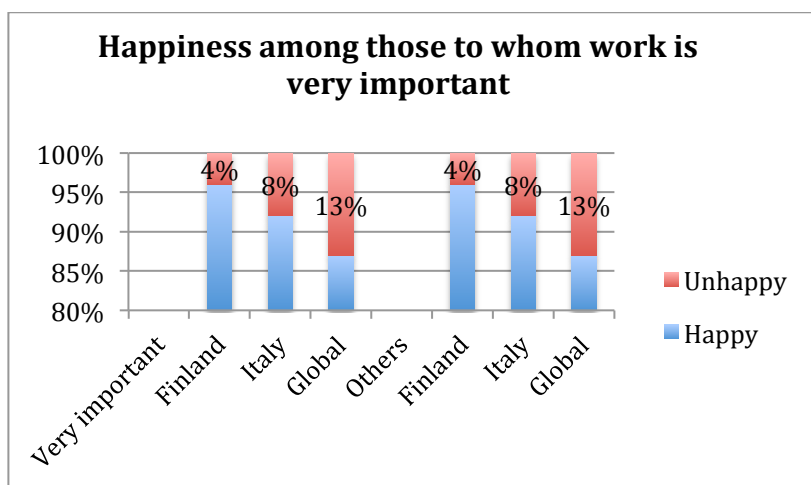
Figure 13 Happiness among those to whom work is very important

Finland: Cramer's V: < 0,1, p>0,8; Italy: Cramer's V: < 0,1, p>0,9; global: Cramer's V: < 0,1, p>0,4

These latter results suggest that the intensity of importance of work does not influence a responder's happiness greatly, as long as s/he finds work important. However, if we take one step further and divide happy people into very happy and happy, we can see that those who find work very important are more likely very happy among global responders, as Kruskal-Wallis test result also shows ($p<0,001$). There is no connection in the Finnish or Italian data ($p>0,05$).

Table 14 The amount of very happy among those who find work very important (%)

	Finland		Italy		Global	
	Very happy	N	Very happy	N	Very happy	N
Work very important	34	234	22	318	38	19 879
Others	35	261	21	176	28	9 300
	p>0,8 Cramer's V=0,011		p>0,7 Cramer's V=0,012		p<0,001 Cramer's V=0,1	

Since this correlation is an important finding in framing the happiness at work, it is worth having a closer look on which factors might influence the correlation. Table 15 shows how happiness is divided among the sexes and the importance of work.

Table 15 Importance of work and happiness (%)

	Finland			Italy			Global		
	Happy	Very happy	N	Happy	Very happy	N	Happy	Very happy	N
Work very important, male	97	26	128	93	22	218	88	37	14 114
Others, male	98	35	129	91	23	105	86	27	5 644
Work very important, female	96	44	115	91	22	133	84	39	9 243
Others, female	95	36	143	93	19	86	88	29	5 077
	Male p>0,6 Cramer's V< 0,1 Female p>0,6 Cramer's V<0,1	Male p>0,1 Cramer's V< 0,1 Female p>0,2 Cramer's V<0,1		Male p>0,7 Cramer's V= 0,1 Female p>0,5 Cramer's V<0,1	Male p>0,9 Cramer's V< 0,1 Female p>0,6 Cramer's V< 0,1		Male p>0,3 Cramer's V< 0,1 Female p<0,001 Cramer's V< 0,1	Male p<0,001 Cramer's V< 0,1 Female p<0,001 Cramer's V= 0,1	

The results from the global data show that women are more likely to be happy if work is not so important to them, but both sexes are more likely to be very happy if they find work very important. In the global data the correlation is stronger among women. However, the correlations are rather weak. The Finnish and Italian data show no connection.

In the theory section I have discussed age influencing the importance of work. This study also shows that there is correlation between the age groups, the importance of work and happiness in the global data in all age groups. To be precise: when looking at happiness in general, there are no significant differences between these two divisions among the oldest age group, but when looking at those who are very happy we can detect significant differences among all age groups. What is surprising and rather confusing is the fact that when we only look at the generally happy people, the results suggest that people are happier when work is not very important to them. However, if we look at those who are very happy, the results suggest that people in all age groups finding work very important are more likely very happy than the others. The Finnish and Italian data show no connection.

Table 16 Importance of work in age groups and happiness (%)

Age	Finland			Italy			Global		
	Happy	Very happy	N	Happy	Very happy	N	Happy	Very happy	N
15-29 Work very important	95	43	42	97	29	39	86	39	5 798
Others	98	44	51	94	38	34	88	29	2 551
30-49 Work very important	96	39	126	93	20	195	85	37	12 274
Others	95	34	145	93	19	108	87	28	5 551
50-98 Work very important	97	22	75	88	23	112	84	37	5 234
Others	96	32	76	90	14	49	84	28	2 615
	Happy: 15-29 p>0,4, CV < 0,1 30-49 p>0,7, CV < 0,1 50-98 p>0,6, CV <0,1 Very happy: 15-29 p>0,8, CV < 0,1 30-49 p>0,4, CV < 0,1 50-98 p>0,2, CV =0,1			Happy: 15-29 p>0,4, CV < 0,1 30-49 p>0,9, CV < 0,1 50-98 p>0,8, CV <0,1 Very happy: 15-29 p>0,4, CV < 0,2 30-49 p>0,8, CV < 0,2 50-98 p>0,2, CV =0,1			Happy: 15-29 p<0,01, CV < 0,1 30-49 p<0,001, CV < 0,1 50-98 p>0,9, CV <0,001 Very happy: 15-29 p<0,001, CV = 0,1 30-49 p<0,001, CV = 0,1 50-98 p<0,001, CV =0,1		

Does the profession make a difference then when looking for correlations between happiness and the importance of work? It doesn't in the Italian data and all other professions except among manual workers in the Finnish data (table 17). Finnish manual workers are therefore more likely to be unhappy if they find work important. The same result appears among global manual workers too. Also professionals are more likely unhappy if work is important to them in the global data. However, if we look at the

percentages of the very happy responders in the global data, we can see that most of the profession groups are more likely very happy if work is very important to them, formen/supervisors and army/security workers standing out as exceptions.

Table 17 Importance of work in profession groups and happiness (%)

	Finland				Italy				Global			
	Happy	Very happy	N	x2 (H=happy, VH= very happy)	Happy	Very happy	N	x2 (H=happy, VH= very happy)	Happy	Very happy	N	x2 (H=happy, VH= very happy)
Employer												
Very important	100	29	21	H: p>0,1, CV < 0,3	95	25	42	H p>0,8, CV < 0,1	88	41	1960	H p>0,2 CV < 0,1
Others	91	53	21	VH: p>0,1 CV < 0,3	94	40	16	VH p>0,2 CV < 0,2	90	33	888	VH p<0,001 CV < 0,1
Professional												
Very important	100	34	47	H: p>0,5, CV < 0,2	90	25	81	H: p>0,9, CV < 0,1	89	38	3070	H p<0,01 CV < 0,1
Others	93	57	44	VH: p>0,5 CV < 0,1	90	15	38	VH p>0,2 CV < 0,2	92	34	1458	VH p<0,01 CV < 0,1
Supervising office worker												
Very important	96	42	25	H: p>0,2, CV < 0,2	90	32	31	H: p>0,2, CV < 0,2	92	40	1212	H p>0,5 CV < 0,1
Others	100	44	32	VH: p>0,8 CV < 0,1	100	25	16	VH p>0,6 CV < 0,1	91	33	654	VH p<0,01 CV < 0,1
Office worker												
Very important	98	41	52	H: p>0,1, CV < 0,2	92	17	72	H p>0,3 CV < 0,1	89	36	2622	H p>0,5 CV < 0,1
Others	92	36	64	VH: p>0,5 CV < 0,1	96	24	48	VH p>0,3 CV < 0,1	89	26	1522	VH p<0,001 CV < 0,2
Formen/ supervisor												
Very important	100	50	2	NR	100	25	8	H p>0,1 CV < 0,4	84	33	348	H p>0,7 CV < 0,1
Others	100	60	5	VH: p>0,8 CV < 0,1	75	17	8	VH p>0,7 CV < 0,2	85	27	194	VH p>0,1 CV < 0,1
Manual worker												
Very important	92	30	79	H: p>0,1, CV < 0,2	91	21	84	H p>0,9 CV < 0,1	83	37	7979	H p<0,05 CV < 0,1
Others	99	30	94	VH: p<0,5 CV < 0,2	90	22	40	VH p>0,8 CV < 0,1	85	26	3012	VH p<0,001 CV < 0,1
Farmer/ agricultural												
Very important	100	30	10	NR	100	14	7	NR	79	36	2922	H p>0,5 CV < 0,1
Others	100	20	5	VH: p>0,6 CV < 0,2	100	-	10	VH p>0,2 CV < 0,3	79	21	1530	VH p<0,001 CV <0,2
Army/security												
Very important	100	-	1	NR	100	17	6	NR	90	41	358	H p>0,7 CV < 0,1
Others	100	-	2	VH: p>0,6 CV < 0,2	100	-	4	VH p>0,3 CV < 0,3	89	34	119	VH p>0,2 CV < 0,1

5.5.2 Work is highly appreciated

There are differences between appreciation in the data: Finnish responders disagree more often with the statements than other responders and almost every second has chosen neither as their answer. Only 6 % of the Italian and global responders disagree with the statements. The Italian answers are very similar to global views. High appreciation of work can, however, be seen and it is stronger among the Italian than Finnish respondents.
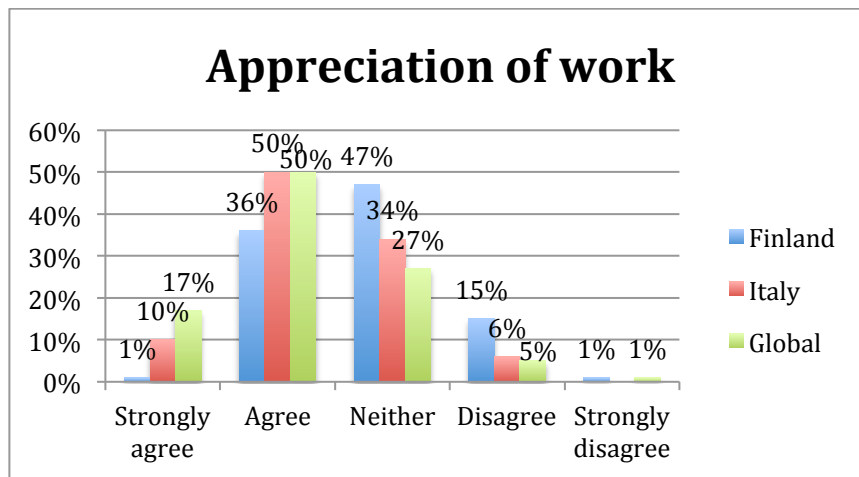
Figure 14 Appreciation of work

Happiness and the appreciation of work do not correlate in the Finnish or Italian data (Kruskal-Wallis test results p>0,6). However, a significant connection in the global data is obvious (KW p<0,001). Therefore I will now exclusively concentrate on the global data and see what factors influence the connection between happiness and appreciation of work among employed the global responders.

The logistic regression analysis found differences in happiness when comparing those who disagree with the statements to the others (table 18). There is difference especially between the agreeing and disagreeing responders. Those who agree with the statements are more likely to be unhappy than those who disagree. The appreciation of work explains only 0,3% of the happiness, which is not much at all.

Table 18 Appreciation of work and happiness, global data

	B	Wald	df	Sig.	Odds Ratio
Agree	-0,379	23,053	1	0,000***	0,684
Neither	-0,187	5,056	1	0,025*	0,829
Nagelkerke R= 0,003		x^2=45,403; df=2; p<0,001		Hosmer&Lemeshow test p= 1	

*p<0,05, ***p>0,001

The chart below shows that there are more happy respondents among those who disagree with the statements. These results suggest that people are happier when they have lower appreciation of work and when they are less strict with their values towards work.
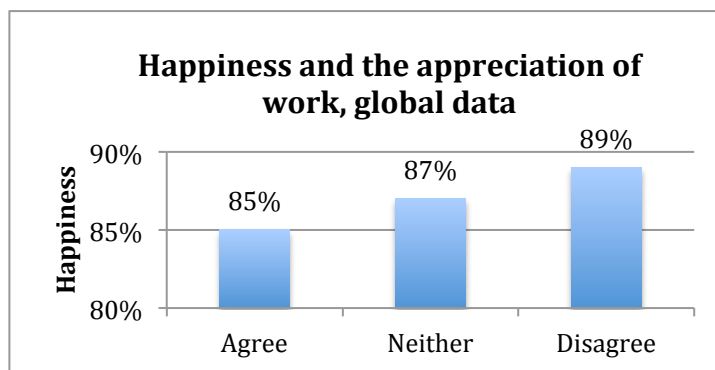
Figure 15 Happiness and the appreciation of work, global data

Cramer's V: < 0,1, p<0,001

The same pattern appears when comparing the appreciation of work between the sexes (table 19). The results suggest that women are happier when they do not agree with the statements, hence have high appreciation of work. Men are happier when neither disagreeing nor agreeing with the statements. The weakness of the results appears.

Table 19 Appreciation of work among sexes and happiness (%), global data

Sex	Happy	N	
Male			p=0,001
Agree	85	13 039	Cramer's V: < 0,1
Neither	87	4 624	
Disagree	86	873	
Female			p<0,001
Agree	85	8 342	Cramer's V: < 0,1
Neither	88	3 982	
Disagree	90	905	

There is also a correlation among the age groups when looking at the happiness and appreciation of work (table 20). The results are significant within the age group of 30-49. In the youngest age group there is a clear difference between those who agree with the statements and the others. The smallest differences in happiness rates are among the oldest age group.

Table 20 Appreciation of work among age groups and happiness (%), global data

Age	Global Happy	N	
15-29			p<0,01, Cramer's V: < 0,1
Agree	66	5 227	
Neither	89	2 219	
Disagree	85	404	
30-49			p<0,001,
Agree	85	11 205	Cramer's V: < 0,1
Neither	88	4 495	
Disagree	91	979	
50-98			p<0,05, Cramer's V: < 0,1
Agree	84	4 908	
Neither	85	1 884	
Disagree	89	395	

These results suggest that in the youngest age group those with the highest appreciation of work are more likely to be unhappier than others, for the oldest age group the appreciation and happiness are not that significantly linked, and that happiness increases when the appreciation for work decreases.

When comparing the happiness rates and appreciation of work in different professions, only the results with professionals are significant, but the correlation is also rather weak (table 21). Therefore the profession does not greatly influence on appreciation of work and happiness.

It is interesting to see if the importance of work and appreciation of work has co-influence on happiness. The crosstabs analysis shows that those who find work important, but disagree with the statements are happier than those who agree (table 22). However, the correlation is weak. For those to whom work is unimportant agreeing with the statements does not significantly influence happiness.

Table 21 Appreciation of work among professions and happiness (%), global data

Profession	Happy	N	
Employer			p>0,9, Cramer's V: < 0,1
Agree	89	1 758	
Neither	89	764	
Disagree	90	192	
Professional			p<0,01, Cramer's V: < 0,1
Agree	89	2624	
Neither	91	1325	
Disagree	93	353	
Supervising office worker			p>0,3, Cramer's V: < 0,1
Agree	91	1007	
Neither	93	607	
Disagree	90	161	
Office worker			p>0,1, Cramer's V: < 0,1
Agree	88	2323	
Neither	90	1 333	
Disagree	91	294	
Forman/supervisor			p>0,1, Cramer's V: < 0,1
Agree	82	349	
Neither	87	142	
Disagree	93	29	
Manual worker			p>0,4, Cramer's V: < 0,1
Agree	83	7173	
Neither	84	2532	
Disagree	84	415	
Farmer/acrigultural			p>0,1, Cramer's V: < 0,1
Agree	81	3383	
Neither	77	588	
Disagree	80	46	
Army/security			p>0,4, Cramer's V: < 0,1
Agree	89	333	
Neither	90	105	
Disagree	90	12	

Most of these results support the findings that people are more likely happier when they do not agree with the statements.

Table 22 Importance of work and happiness (%)

Importance of work	Happy	N	
Work important			p<0,001 CV: < 0,1
Agree	85	20 751	
Neither	88	8 186	
Disagree	90	1 576	
Work unimportant			p>0,05 CV: < 0,1
Agree	80	532	
Neither	81	381	
Disagree	83	199	

5.6 Important aspects when choosing a job

In all three data a third of the responders have chosen safety as the first choice when looking for a job (figure 16). Nearly every third has also selected the importance of work as the first choice, too, in the Finnish and Italian data, whereas in the global data income is more often selected than importance. Every fifth of the Finnish responders has chosen people as their first choice, but in both Italian and global only every tenth has found people as the most important factor when looking for a job. Therefore the Finnish responders value safety and importance the most and income the least when looking for a job. The Italian responders also value safety and importance high, but they value income more than people they work with. Whereas in the global data safety and income are the most important aspects when looking for a job and working with nice people is not as highly valued as other factors.
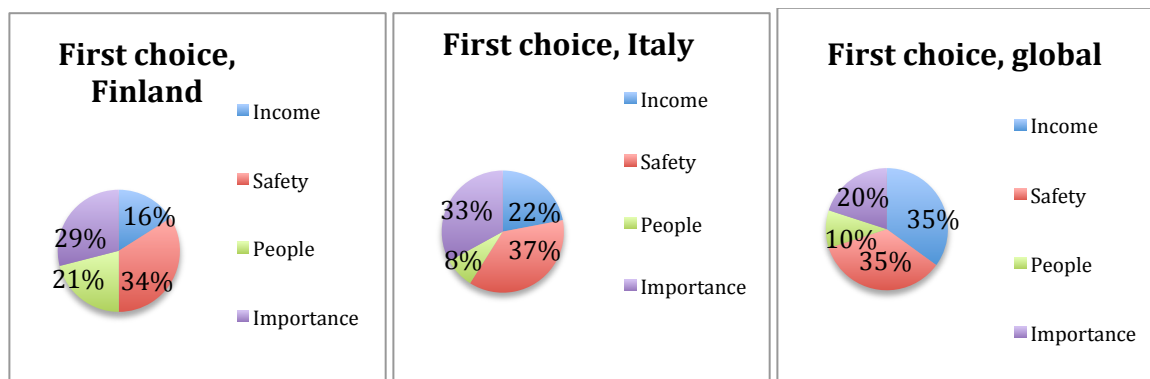
Figure 16 Important aspects when looking for a job: Finland, Italy and global data

Does the selection of first choice and happiness correlate? Once again, the answer is yes and no. In the Finnish and Italian data there is no correlation between the first choice and happiness (Kruskal-Wallis p>0,1). However, there is a significant correlation between happiness and the first choice in the global data (KW p<0,001). The crosstabs analysis supports these findings and shows that there are more happy people among those who have selected the importance of work as the first choice and the highest number of unhappy people among those to whom income is the most important aspect when looking for a job (table 23).

Table 23 First choice and happiness (%)

First choice	Finland Happy	N	Italy Happy	N	Global Happy	N
Income	89	93	93	134	81	14 345
Safety	95	202	91	220	83	13 919
People	92	129	85	48	86	3 971
Importance	95	176	93	137	89	7 812
	p>0,2, CV: < 0,1		p>0,3, CV: < 0,1		p<0,001 CV: < 0,1	

Therefore it is surely worth having a closer look on the selections. The data is analyzed with the logistic regress analysis and all four options are recoded as dichotomous. All the options have been recoded into individual variables, which with values 0 and 1, the latter standing for being selected as the most important aspect when looking for a job and 0 standing for not being selected. Even though happiness does not correlate with the choices in the Finnish and Italian data, I will however, investigate what other factors possibly correlate with the choices.

Income

When analyzing the Finnish data, the tests do not show great significances between any groups (table 24). Also, the Nagelkerke R result shows, that this analysis explains only 6 % of the variances. Therefore happiness, age, sex, profession, education or employment status do not explain who has chosen income as the first choice.

Similar results occur in the Italian data too (table 25). The only group that has differences among the responses is the professions. Happiness, sex, age, education or employment situation do not correlate with income as the first choice. There are however, differences among professions when using employers as the reference group. The most significant difference is that the odds for choosing income as the first choice are four times higher for those working as supervising office workers, four times higher for those working as formen/supervisor and almost three times higher for those working as professionals, than for the others.

Table 24 Income as the first choice, Finland

Finland	B	Wald	Sig.	Odds Ratio
Happiness, reference happy	0,990	3,547	0,060	2,690
Sex, reference female	0,285	1,150	0,284	1,330
Age, reference 50-98				
15-29	0,227	0,323	0,570	1,524
30-49	0,294	0,916	0,339	1,342
Education, reference university				
Primary	0,650	2,359	0,125	1,113
Secondary/vocational	0,087	0,065	0,799	1,091
Secondary/university preparatory	0,257	0,279	0,597	1,317
Employment, reference unemployed				
Full-time emp.	-0,100	0,26	0,871	0,905
Part-time emp.	0,124	0,27	0,869	1,131
Self-emp.	-0,245	0,29	0,875	0,910
Profession, reference employer				
Professional	0,457	0,530	0,467	1,579
Supervising office worker	0,676	1,200	0,273	1,966
Office worker	-0,100	0,025	0,876	0,905
Forman/supervisor	-19,048	0,000	0,999	0,000
Manual worker	0,310	0,271	0,603	1,364
Farmer/agr. worker	-0,945	0,637	0,425	0,389
Army/security	1,292	0,891	0,345	3,640
x^2=18,645; df=17; p>0,4		Nagelkerke R= 0,056	Hosmer&Lemeshow test p= 0,377	

Table 25 Income as the first choice, Italy

Italy	B	Wald	Sig.	Odds Ratio
Happiness, ref. happy	0,643	2,106	0,147	1,902
Sex, ref. female	0,312	1,635	0,201	1,367
Age, ref. 50-98				
15-29	0,04	0,000	0,990	1,004
30-49	-0,247	0,887	0,346	0,781
Education, ref, university				
Primary	0,497	0,712	0,399	1,644
Secondary/vocational	-0,086	0,059	0,808	0,918
Seconday/university preparatory	0,257	0,279	0,597	1,317
Employment, ref. unemployed				
Full-time emp.	-0,520	1,083	0,308	0,594
Part-time emp.	-0,339	0,301	0,583	0,713
Self-emp.	-0,463	0,726	0,394	0,629
Profession, ref. employer				
Professional	1,028	4,192	0,041*	2,796
Supervising office worker	1,451	6,365	0,012*	4,268
Office worker	0,710	1,726	0,189	2,082
Forman/supervisor	1,406	4,189	0,041*	4,082
Manual worker	0,923	3,216	0,073	2,518
Farmer/agr. worker	1,041	2,452	0,117	2,831
Army/security	1,123	1,714	0,191	3,075
x^2=18, 789; df=17; p>0,3		Nagelkerke R= 0,053	Hosmer&Lemeshow test p= 0,884	

*p<0,05

Since the explained variance of the total model is 5 %, and the results overall aren't significant, generalizations should be avoided.

Sex, age, education, employment situation and profession all explain selecting income as the first choice in the global data (table 26). Men are more likely to choose income than women. Those with university education more unlikely choose income than the responders with a lower level of education. The responders in the age group 50-98 are less likely to choose income as the first choice compared to the other age groups. The self-employed are more likely to choose income than other groups, so are formen/supervisors, manual workers and farmers when compared to employers and other professions.

Table 26 Income as the first choice, global data

Global	B	Wald	Sig.	Odds Ratio
Happiness, ref. happy	-0,270	67,841	0,065	0,768
Sex, ref. female	0,108	19,045	0,000***	1,115
Age, ref. 50-98				
15-29	0,374	110,221	0,000***	1,454
30-49	0,279	81,834	0,000***	1,322
Education, ref. university				
Primary	0,404	89,580	0,000***	1,498
Secondary/vocational	0,246	41,176	0,000***	1,278
Seconday/university prep.	0,235	37,969	0,000***	1,265
Employment, ref. unemployed				
Full-time emp.	0,042	0,602	0,438	1,043
Part-time emp.	0,004	0,004	0,951	1,004
Self-emp.	0,136	5,455	0,020*	1,145
Profession, ref. employer				
Professional	0,065	1,412	0,235	1,067
Supervising office worker	0,047	0,514	0,474	1,048
Office worker	0,040	0,542	0,462	1,041
Forman/supervisor	0,240	6,119	0,013*	1,271
Manual worker	0,220	21,909	0,000***	1,246
Farmer/agr. worker	0,252	22,078	0,000***	1,286
Army/security	0,150	2,196	0,138	1,162
x^2=566,946; df=19; p<0,001		Nagelkerke R= 0,025	Hosmer&Lemeshow test p= 0,158	

*p<0,05, ***p<0,001

Since the explained variance of the total model is 2,5 %, there are other aspects that have more influence on choosing income as the first choice than these examined here. Strong generalizations should be avoided, however.

Safety

Safety was seen as one of the most important aspects when choosing a job in both of the countries. In the the Finnish data only one variable with significance on the choice is education (table 27). Those with vocational studies are twice as likely to choose safety as the first choice than those with university education. There were no significant differences between other education groups, this was also the case with sex, age, profession and employment situation. The explained variance of the total model was 7,3%, and the Hosmer&Lemeshow test shows no great compatibility for the model.

Table 27 Safety as the first choice, Finland

Finland	B	Wald	Sig.	Odds Ratio
Happiness, reference happy	0,093	0,032	0,858	1,097
Sex, reference female	0,119	0,339	0,560	1,126
Age, reference 50-98				
15-29	0,301	1,024	0,312	1,352
30-49	-0,030	0,016	0,899	0,971
Education, reference university				
Primary	0,509	2,161	0,142	1,664
Secondary/vocational	0,708	7,474	0,006**	2,030
Secondary/university preparatory	0,341	0,692	0,406	1,407
Employment, reference unemployed				
Full-time emp.	-0,147	0,089	0,765	0,864
Part-time emp.	0,806	1,651	0,199	0,446
Self-emp.	0,150	0,093	0,772	0,871
Profession, reference employer				
Professional	0,622	1,510	0,219	1,863
Supervising office worker	0,413	0,638	0,424	1,511
Office worker	0,945	3,745	0,053	2,572
Forman/supervisor	-0,551	0,219	0,640	0,577
Manual worker	0,868	3,405	0,065	2,383
Farmer/agr. worker	0,051	0,005	0,945	1,502
Army/security	0,813	0,374	0,541	2,254
x^2=27,253; df=17; p<0,05		Nagelkerke R= 0,073	Hosmer&Lemeshow test p= 0,496	

**p<0,01

The Italian data analysis shows exactly the same results as the Finnish data and the explained variance of the total model is slightly better (11 %). Those with a vocational level education are also twice more likely to choose safety than those with university education. There were also no significant differences between sex, age, employment status and profession groups (table 28).

Table 28 Safety as the first choice, Italy

Italy	B	Wald	Sig.	Odds Ratio
Happiness, reference happy	-0,268	0,610	0,435	0,765
Sex, reference female	-0,225	1,089	0,297	0,798
Age, reference 50-98				
15-29	0,102	0,097	0,755	1,107
30-49	0,212	0,782	0,377	1,237
Education, reference university				
Primary	0,741	1,747	0,186	2,098
Secondary/vocational	0,687	4,881	0,027*	1,988
Secondary/university preparatory	0,420	2,481	0,115	1,522
Employment, reference unemployed				
Full-time emp.	0,360	0,577	0,455	1,434
Part-time emp.	0,501	0,780	0,377	1,650
Self-emp.	-0,230	0,195	0,659	0,795
Profession, reference employer				
Professional	-0,372	0,796	0,372	0,689
Supervising office worker	-1,074	3,832	0,058	0,342
Office worker	0,159	0,137	0,711	1,173
Forman/supervisor	0,241	0,159	0,690	1,273
Manual worker	0,050	0,015	0,903	1,051
Farmer/agr. worker	-0,285	0,214	0,643	0,752
Army/security	0,759	0,986	0,321	2,137
x^2=43,373; df=17; p<0,001		Nagelkerke R= 0,108	Hosmer&Lemeshow test p= 0,508	

*p<0,05

What about the global data then? This analysis shows that most socio-demographic factors do correlate with safety as the first choice. As table 29 shows, sex, age, education, employment situation and profession all explain selecting safety as the first choice. Men are more likely to choose safety than women. The responders in the youngest age group are less likely to choose safety than those in the age group 50-98. Those with primary or secondary level education are more likely to choose safety than those with university education. The full and part-time employed and the self-employed are less likely to choose safety than the unemployed. All the other professions are more likely to choose safety as the first choice than employers. Happiness has no connection with safety as the first choice.

These results suggest that people with a secondary/vocational level education are more likely to choose safety as the first choice than people with other educational levels in the Finnish and Italian data, but there were no other significant connections. The global data suggests that safety is more likely chosen by women, the unemployed, the respondents in

the age group 50-98, those with no university education and all profession groups except employers.

Table 29 Safety as the first choice, global data

Global	B	Wald	Sig.	Odds Ratio
Happiness, ref. happy	-0,033	0,974	0,324	0,967
Sex, ref. female	0,060	5,735	0,017*	1,062
Age, ref. 50-98				
15-29	-0,179	24,981	0,000***	0,836
30-49	-0,012	0,167	0,683	0,988
Education, ref. university				
Primary	0,394	83,007	0,000***	1,483
Secondary/vocational	0,380	97,180	0,000***	1,462
Seconday/university prep.	0,262	46,146	0,000***	1,300
Employment, ref. unemployed				
Full-time emp.	-0,115	4,700	0,030*	0,891
Part-time emp.	-0,205	10,852	0,001**	0,851
Self-emp.	-0,260	20,238	0,000***	0,771
Profession, ref. employer				
Professional	0,209	13,974	0,000***	1,232
Supervising office worker	0,132	3,896	0,048*	1,142
Office worker	0,340	38,452	0,000***	1,405
Forman/supervisor	0,239	5,861	0,015*	1,270
Manual worker	0,319	43,342	0,000***	1,375
Farmer/agr. worker	0,312	31,812	0,000***	1,366
Army/security	0,403	15,823	0,000***	1,496
x^2=368,519; df=19; p<0,001		Nagelkerke R= 0,016	Hosmer&Lemeshow test p= 0,005	

*p<0,05, **p<0,01, ***p<0,001

People

None of the chosen variables in the Finnish data explain significantly why working with nice people has been selected as the first choice (table 30). The Hosmer and Lemeshow result also shows that coefficients are not good between the data and the model. Also the explained variance of the total model was only 5 %. Therefore the explanations of choosing people as the first choice cannot be given within the Finnish data.

Table 30 People as the first choice, Finland

Finland	B	Wald	Sig.	Odds Ratio
Happiness, reference happy	0,018	0,001	0,973	1,019
Sex, reference female	-0,179	0,569	0,451	0,837
Age, reference 50-98				
15-29	0,406	1,387	0,239	1,501
30-49	0,146	0,277	0,599	1,157
Education, reference university				
Primary	0,270	0,483	0,487	1,309
Secondary/vocational	-0,307	1,020	0,312	0,735
Secondary/university preparatory	-0,042	0,008	0,931	0,959
Employment, reference unemployed				
Full-time emp.	0,372	0,450	0,503	1,450
Part-time emp.	0,459	0,443	0,506	1,582
Self-emp.	0,383	0,448	0,495	1,300
Profession, reference employer				
Professional	-0,693	1,730	0,188	0,500
Supervising office worker	-0,654	1,393	0,238	0,520
Office worker	-0,751	2,117	0,460	0,472
Forman/supervisor	0,868	0,963	0,326	2,383
Manual worker	-0,072	0,022	0,882	0,931
Farmer/agr. worker	0,956	1,777	0,183	2,602
Army/security	-20,229	0,000	0,999	0,000
x^2=17,614; df=17; p>0,3	Nagelkerke R= 0,054		Hosmer&Lemeshow test p= 0,262	

The same results occur in the Italian data too, as the chi square results show none of these aspects can explain the variables well (table 31). Also the Hosmer&Lemeshow test result suggests that coefficients are not good between the data and the model. However, age shows some significance: those in the age group 15-29 are less likely to choose people as the first choice than those in the oldest age group. The odds are very small though.

Table 31 People as the first choice, Italy

Italy	B	Wald	Sig.	Odds Ratio
Happiness, reference happy	-0,792	2,781	0,095	0,453
Sex, reference female	-0,549	2,324	0,127	0,577
Age, reference 50-98				
15-29	-1,701	4,522	0,033*	0,182
30-49	-0,421	1,324	0,250	0,656
Education, reference university				
Primary	0,336	0,152	0,697	1,399
Secondary/vocational	-0,065	0,014	0,904	0,037
Secondary/university preparatory	0,149	0,107	0,744	1,161
Employment, reference unemployed				
Full-time emp.	-0,732	0,992	0,319	0,485
Part-time emp.	-0,893	1,022	0,312	0,410
Self-emp.	-0,991	1,588	0,208	0,371
Profession, reference employer				
Professional	-0,765	1,388	0,239	0,465
Supervising office worker	-1,326	1,978	0,160	0,265
Office worker	-0,474	0,490	0,484	0,622
Forman/supervisor	-1,195	1,008	0,315	0,303
Manual worker	-0,556	0,692	0,405	0,574
Farmer/agr. worker	-1,021	0,788	0,375	0,360
Army/security	-18,907	0,000	0,999	0,000
x^2=18,474; df=17; p>0,3		Nagelkerke R= 0,080	Hosmer&Lemeshow test p= 0,023	

*p<0,05

The results from the global data are more explanatory (table 32). Chi square result shows that some variants are able to explain the first choice. However, the Hosmer and Lemeshow result shows that coefficients are almost nonexistent between the data and the model. Also the explained variance of the total model was around l %.

If we look at the data in table 32 we can see that happiness, age, education and profession have connections with people as the first choice. People with university education are more likely to choose people than those with a lower education. Those in the age group 30-49 are less likely to choose people than the reference group. When comparing other professions to employers, we can see that professionals, supervising office workers and manual workers are less likely to choose people as the first choice. Happiness and employment status do not correlate with importance as the first choice.

Table 32 People as the first choice, global data

Global	B	Wald	Sig.	Odds Ratio
Happiness, ref. happy	0,144	6,619	0,058	1,155
Sex, ref. female	-0,077	3,786	0,052	0,926
Age, ref. 50-98				
15-29	-0,072	1,751	0,186	0,930
30-49	-0,195	1,710	0,000***	0,823
Education, ref. university				
Primary	-0,306	20,860	0,000***	0,737
Secondary/vocational	-0,261	19,679	0,000***	0,770
Seconday/university prep.	-0,153	7,080	0,000***	0,858
Employment, ref. unemployed				
Full-time emp.	0,000	0,000	0,996	1,000
Part-time emp.	0,156	2,479	0,150	1,169
Self-emp.	-0,47	0,251	0,616	0,954
Profession, ref. employer				
Professional	-0,383	21,683	0,000***	0,682
Supervising office worker	-0,212	4,591	0,032*	0,809
Office worker	-0,057	0,506	0,477	0,945
Forman/supervisor	-0,313	3,671	0,055	0,731
Manual worker	-0,172	5,887	0,015*	0,842
Farmer/agr. worker	-0,293	2,954	0,86	0,746
Army/security	-0,293	2,954	0,86	0,746
x^2=100,606; df=19; p<0,001		Nagelkerke R= 0,007	Hosmer&Lemeshow test p= 0,008	

*p<0,05, ***p<0,001

These results suggest that none of the variants explain people as the first choice in the Finnish or Italian data, but in the global data we can see that happy and educated people are more likely to choose people as the first choice, unless they are working as professionals, supervising office workers or manual workers.

Importance

In the Finnish data those with primary school studies choose importance less likely than those with university education (table 33). The respondents in the first age group are also less likely to choose importance as the first choice than those in the last age group. There are no significant differences between the middle and the last age groups. Importance as the first choice is less likely chosen by manual workers than employers. There were no significant differences between other profession groups. Happiness, sex or employment status do not explain the choices. The explained variance of the total model was 16 %.

Table 33 Importance as the first choice, Finland

Finland	B	Wald	Sig.	Odds Ratio
Happiness, reference happy	0,967	2,046	0,153	2,629
Sex, reference female	-0,196	0,791	0,374	0,822
Age, reference 50-98				
15-29	-0,923	6,830	0,009**	0,397
30-49	-0,268	1,214	0,271	0,765
Education, reference university				
Primary	-1,441	11,153	0,001**	0,237
Secondary/vocational	-0,479	3,636	0,057	0,619
Secondary/university preparatory	-0,351	0,725	0,395	0,704
Employment, reference unemployed				
Full-time emp.	-0,131	0,075	0,783	0,877
Part-time emp.	0,357	0,366	0,545	1,429
Self-emp.	-0,235	0,290	0,875	0,910
Profession, reference employer				
Professional	-0,262	0,345	0,557	0,767
Supervising office worker	-0,260	0,318	0,573	0,771
Office worker	-0,260	0,345	0,577	0,771
Forman/supervisor	-0,040	0,002	0,936	0,961
Manual worker	-1,133	6,276	0,012**	0,322
Farmer/agr. worker	-0,400	0,312	0,577	0,670
Army/security	-0,414	0,097	0,755	0,661
x^2=60,447; df=17; p<0,001	Nagelkerke R= 0,161	Hosmer&Lemeshow test p= 0,515		

**p<0,01

In the Italian data the explained variance of the total model was 12 %. In the Italian data the only variance with a reasonable connection is the employment status. The full- and part-time employed and self-employed are less likely to choose importance than the unemployed. There are no significant differences between importance as the first choice and happiness, the sexes, age groups, education or profession (table 34).

Table 34 Importance as the first choice, Italy

Italy	B	Wald	Sig.	Odds Ratio
Happiness, reference happy	0,193	0,264	0,607	1,212
Sex, reference female	0,140	0,413	0,521	1,150
Age, reference 50-98				
15-29	0,375	1,268	0,260	1,455
30-49	0,160	0,448	0,503	1,174
Education, reference university				
Primary	0,438	0,625	0,429	1,550
Secondary/vocational	0,104	0,025	0,874	1,109
Secondary/university preparatory	0,982	2,943	0,086	2,670
Employment, reference unemployed				
Full-time emp.	-1,639	5,100	0,024*	0,194
Part-time emp.	-0,615	3,846	0,050	0,540
Self-emp.	-0,531	4,267	0,039	0,588
Profession, reference employer				
Professional	-0,147	0,155	0,694	0,863
Supervising office worker	0,155	0,110	0,740	1,168
Office worker	-0,548	1,686	0,194	0,578
Forman/supervisor	-1,092	2,300	0,129	0,335
Manual worker	-0,546	1,871	0,171	0,579
Farmer/agr. worker	-0,190	0,001	0,973	0,981
Army/security	-1,686	2,243	0,134	0,185
x^2=47,025; df=17; p<0,001		Nagelkerke R= 0,118	Hosmer&Lemeshow test p= 0,749	

*p<0,05

When we analyze the global data, many different aspects have connections with importance as the first choice (table 35). Men are less likely to choose importance than women, and so are the responders in the age groups 15-29 and 30-49 when compared to the last age group. People with no university education are less likely to choose importance as the first choice than those with university education. All other professions than supervising office workers are less likely to choose importance than employers. The part-time and self-employed are more likely to choose importance than the unemployed, and the full-time employed are also quite close to the limit of a reasonable connection. The explained variance of the total model was 8 %, which is a little bit better than in other global analyses, but the Hosmer&Lemeshow test still shows almost nonexistent coefficients between the data and the model.

Table 35 Importance as the first choice, global data

Global	B	Wald	Sig.	Odds Ratio
Happiness, ref. happy	0,470	95,213	0,062	1,600
Sex, ref. female	-0,206	45,742	0,000***	0,814
Age, ref. 50-98				
15-29	-0,249	33,646	0,000***	0,779
30-49	-0,277	57,410	0,000***	0,758
Education, ref. university				
Primary	-0,941	309, 033	0,000***	0,390
Secondary/vocational	-0,616	202,174	0,000***	0,540
Seconday/university prep.	-0,476	128,417	0,000***	0,621
Employment, ref. unemployed				
Full-time emp.	0,138	3,369	0,066	1,147
Part-time emp.	0,224	7,111	0,008**	1,251
Self-emp.	0,249	9,556	0,002**	1,283
Profession, ref. employer				
Professional	-0,135	5,687	0,017*	0,874
Supervising office worker	-0,097	1,998	0,158	0,907
Office worker	-0,412	47,871	0,000***	0,663
Forman/supervisor	-0,406	11,973	0,001**	0,666
Manual worker	-0,613	135,538	0,000***	0,542
Farmer/agr. worker	-0,830	147,524	0,000***	0,436
Army/security	-0,545	17,706	0,000***	0,580
x^2=1632,242; df=19; p<0,001		Nagelkerke R= 0,082	Hosmer&Lemeshow test p= 0,020	

*p<0,05, **p<0,01,***p<0,001

These results suggest that there are differences among the Finnish, Italian and global data. In Finnish data importance was less likely chosen by younger and lower educated responders working as manual workers. Whereas in the Italian data the unemployed were in favor of importance when looking for a job. In the global data men, without the university degree, the unemployed and younger than 50 years were less likely to choose importance. This also if they were not employers.

5.7 The quality of work

Three questions concerned the quality of work, since they asked whether the work of a responder consists of manual or cognitive tasks, routine or creative tasks, and how much independence they have at work.

Manual vs. cognitive

Since the data is nonparametric I analyzed the answers with both Kruskal-Wallis and crosstabs analyses. According to the results there isn't any connection between the first question and the level of happiness in Finland (p >0,3) or Italy (p>0,6). This suggests that whether the job consists of more manual or more cognitive tasks does not have great influence on the responder's overall happiness. However, the Kruskal-Wallis analysis shows that there is a significant, but weak connection between the first question and happiness in the global data (p<0,001). This suggests that when the tasks are mainly cognitive people are happier than when doing mainly manual tasks.

Table 36 Manual vs. cognitive and happiness (%)

| | Finland | | Italy | | Global | |
	Happy	N	Happy	N	Happy	N
Manual	97	151	90	140	82	14 052
Neither	97	168	94	159	88	10 194
Cognitive	95	196	92	232	90	8 610
	p=0,527 Cramer's V: <0,1		p=0,501 Cramer's V: <0,1		p<0,001 Cramer's V: <0,1	

Since there is only a connection between the global data and this question, I will now only concentrate on the global data to see what other aspects co-influence with the correlation between happiness and the question. The sex does not make a great difference, both sexes are happier when the work consists more of cognitive than manual tasks (table 37).

Table 37 Manual vs. cognitive and happiness among sexes (%), global data

Sex	Happy	N	
Male			p<0,001
Manual	83	9718	Cramer's V: =0,1
Neither	88	3 572	
Cognitive	90	5 685	
Female			p<0,001
Manual	82	6304	Cramer's V: = 0,1
Neither	87	2669	
Cognitive	90	4892	

The same pattern appears when looking at the results in all three age groups (table 38). In all of them, the quality of work correlates with happiness and people are more likely happier when they do more cognitive than manual tasks. The difference between happiness with mostly manual and mostly cognitive tasks is the biggest among the age group 50-98.

Table 38 Manual vs. cognitive and happiness among age groups (%), global data

Age	Happy	N	
15-29			p<0,01, Cramer's V: < 0,1
Manual	85	3 915	
Neither	87	1619	
Cognitive	90	2390	
30-49			p<0,001, Cramer's V: < 0,1
Manual	82	8219	
Neither	88	3256	
Cognitive	90	3756	
50-98			p<0,001, Cramer's V: < 0,1
Manual	80	3865	
Neither	87	1355	
Cognitive	90	2420	

When looking at the data in table 39, we can see that there are connections between the quality of tasks and happiness among some of the professions. Most of them repeat the same pattern of happiness increasing when the cognitivity increases. The difference in tasks correlates with happiness among employers, office workers, manual workers and farmers/agricultural workers. There is however, no correlation among professionals, supervising office workers, formen/supervisors and army/security workers. The connections in all cases are really weak.

The results from the global data analysis suggest that when the number of cognitive tasks increases, the more likely people are happier in both sexes and all age groups and within most of the professions.

Table 39 Manual vs. cognitive and happiness among professions (%), global data

Profession	Happy	N	
Employer			p<0,05, Cramer's V: < 0,1
Manual	87	983	
Neither	89	710	
Cognitive	90	1105	
Professional			p>0,05, Cramer's V: < 0,1
Manual	89	968	
Neither	89	751	
Cognitive	91	2738	
Supervising office worker			p>0,05, Cramer's V: < 0,1
Manual	89	371	
Neither	90	352	
Cognitive	92	1140	
Office worker			p<0,05, Cramer's V: < 0,1
Manual	88	1121	
Neither	87	978	
Cognitive	90	1989	
Forman/supervisor			p>0,2, Cramer's V: < 0,1
Manual	87	219	
Neither	85	129	
Cognitive	81	194	
Manual worker			p=0,001, Cramer's V: < 0,1
Manual	82	7201	
Neither	85	2031	
Cognitive	86	1605	
Farmer/agricultural			p<0,001, Cramer's V: < 0,1
Manual	77	3589	
Neither	87	446	
Cognitive	84	336	
Army/security			p>0,2, Cramer's V: < 0,1
Manual	87	175	
Neither	93	105	
Cognitive	91	178	

Routine vs. creative

According to the results there isn't any connections between the second question and the level of happiness in Finland (p >0,4) or Italy (p>0,8) either (table 40). This suggests that whether the job consists of routine or creative tasks does not have a great influence on the responder's happiness in these two countries. However, the Kruskal-Wallis analysis shows that there is also a significant, but very weak connection between the second question and

happiness in the global data (p<0,001). On the global data happiness increases when the job mostly consists of creative tasks.

Table 40 Routine vs. creative and happiness (%)

	Finland		Italy		Global	
	Happy	N	Happy	N	Happy	N
Routine	96	137	91	161	83	14 399
Neither	96	205	93	186	87	11 398
Creative	97	173	91	184	89	6 940
	p>0,7, Cramer's V: <0,1		p>0,7, Cramer's V: <0,1		p<0,001, Cramer's V: <0,1	

Since the correlation is significant in the global data, I will now solely concentrate on the global answers to find out if sex, age or profession have an influence on the correlation of creativity and happiness. The creativity of tasks correlates with happiness among both sexes. People are happier when their jobs consist more of creative than routine tasks regardless of the sex (table 41).

Table 41 Routine vs. creative and happiness among sexes (%), global data

Sex	Happy	N	
Male			p<0,001
Routine	84	9833	Cramer's V: =0,1
Neither	87	3671	
Creative	89	5419	
Female			p<0,001
Routine	84	7193	Cramer's V: = 0,1
Neither	87	2687	
Creative	90	3918	

We can also see the same results among the age groups (table 42). The connection between creativity and happiness is significant in the middle and last age groups. In the youngest age group there is also a difference between the ends, but those having neither much routine nor creative tasks are as likely happy as those having mainly routine tasks. This suggests that among all age groups those with the most creative tasks are more likely happier than those without that many creative tasks.

Table 42 Routine vs. creative and happiness among age groups (%), global data

Age	Happy	N	
15-29			p<0,01, Cramer's V: < 0,1
Routine	86	4310	
Neither	86	1533	
Creative	89	2050	
30-49			p<0,001, Cramer's V: < 0,1
Routine	82	8742	
Neither	88	3407	
Creative	90	5060	
50-98			p<0,001, Cramer's V: < 0,1
Routine	80	3954	
Neither	87	1410	
Creative	90	2212	

Table 43 Routine vs. creative and happiness among professions (%), global data

Profession	Happy	N	
Employer			p=0,001, Cramer's V: < 0,1
Routine	86	1137	
Neither	91	591	
Creative	90	1060	
Professional			p>0,05, Cramer's V: < 0,1
Routine	89	1519	
Neither	90	791	
Creative	91	2167	
Supervising office worker			p>0,4, Cramer's V: < 0,1
Routine	91	652	
Neither	90	356	
Creative	92	856	
Office worker			p<0,05, Cramer's V: < 0,1
Routine	89	2000	
Neither	87	890	
Creative	90	1200	
Forman/supervisor			p>0,8, Cramer's V: < 0,1
Routine	84	227	
Neither	86	131	
Creative	85	184	
Manual worker			p<0,001, Cramer's V: < 0,1
Routine	82	6650	
Neither	84	2057	
Creative	87	2098	
Farmer/agricultural			p<0,01, Cramer's V: < 0,1
Routine	78	2993	
Neither	83	711	
Creative	82	552	
Army/security			p>0,2, Cramer's V: < 0,1
Routine	89	268	
Neither	88	88	
Creative	95	108	

Happiness and creativity of tasks correlate among employers, office workers, manual workers and farmers/agricultural workers (table 43). There are more happy employers among those whose work consists of neither routine nor creative tasks. Office workers seem to be the unhappiest when their job is in between, a mixture of routines and creative tasks, whereas among both manual workers and farmers there are more happy respondents when the job consists of creative tasks.

The results from global data analysis suggest that when the amount of creativity increases, the more likely people are happier in both sexes and all age groups and within most professions, except for office workers being the happiest when their job is a mixture of both routine and creative tasks.

No independence vs. independence

According to the results there isn't any connection between the third question and the level of happiness in Finland (p>0,1) or Italy (p>0,1). This suggests that the level of independence does not have great influence on happiness in Finland and Italy. The groups were rather uneven though, especially in the Finnish data, since more than 2/3 of the responders rated their independence at work higher than value 7. The Kruskal-Wallis analysis again shows a significant, but weak connection between this question and happiness in the global data (p<0,001). There are more happy people among those who have a great level of independence at their work than among those whose independence is limited (table 44).

Table 44 Independence and happiness (%)

	Finland		Italy		Global	
	Happy	N	Happy	N	Happy	N
No independence	90	30	85	34	81	5015
Neither	96	154	91	215	86	12 524
Independence	97	331	94	280	87	15 261
	p>0,1, Cramer's V: <0,1		p>0,1,Cramer's V: =0,1		p<0,001, Cramer's V: <0,01	

Since the correlation only exists in global data, I will only analyze the global answers when looking at the aspects influencing happiness and independence. Both men and women are more likely to be happier when their work is independent.

Table 45 Independence and happiness among sexes (%), global data

Sex	Happy	N	
Male			p<0,001
No independence	82	3894	Cramer's V: =0,1
Neither	85	4000	
Independence	88	11079	
Female			p<0,001
No independence	81	2843	Cramer's V: = 0,1
Neither	85	2955	
Independence	88	8013	

When comparing different age groups, we can see that the independence of tasks has the same influence on happiness among all age groups.

Table 46 Independence and happiness among age groups (%), global data

Age	Happy	N	
15-29			p<0,001,
No independence	84	1963	Cramer's V: < 0,1
Neither	86	1914	
Independence	89	4048	
30-49			p<0,001,
No independence	82	3418	Cramer's V: < 0,1
Neither	88	3650	
Independence	90	10146	
50-98			p<0,001,
No independence	80	1349	Cramer's V: < 0,1
Neither	87	1383	
Independence	90	4870	

All professions, except army/security workers are more likely happier with independence than without it (table 47). However, employers, supervising office workers, formen/supervisors, office workers and manual workers' answers correlate with happiness.

Table 47 Independence and happiness among professions (%), global data

Profession	Happy	N	
Employer			p<0,001, Cramer's V: < 0,2
No independence	78	267	
Neither	89	365	
Independence	90	2160	
Professional			p>0,05, Cramer's V: < 0,1
No independence	87	629	
Neither	90	877	
Independence	91	2977	
Supervising office worker			p<0,5, Cramer's V: < 0,1
No independence	88	225	
Neither	89	377	
Independence	92	1261	
Office worker			p<0,001, Cramer's V: < 0,1
No independence	87	910	
Neither	86	1108	
Independence	91	2081	
Forman/supervisor			p>0,01, Cramer's V: < 0,2
No independence	79	82	
Neither	78	118	
Independence	88	341	
Manual worker			p<0,001, Cramer's V: = 0,1
No independence	79	3073	
Neither	82	2337	
Independence	87	5361	
Farmer/agricultural			p>0,1, Cramer's V: < 0,1
No independence	77	724	
Neither	78	819	
Independence	80	2736	
Army/security			p>0,1, Cramer's V: < 0,1
No independence	86	142	
Neither	93	116	
Independence	91	202	

There was no connection between the quality of work and happiness in the Finnish and Italian data, but if we look at the results on the global level we can see a clear connection between the quality of work and happiness (KW p<0,001 in all three cases). This suggests that people are more likely happier when the creativity, cognitivity and independence of tasks increase, regardless of sex, age or profession. The connections are very weak though, almost nonexistent (Cramer's V<0,1 with all three questions).

All significant correlations and findings will be discussed within the next chapter.

6 Findings and discussion

6.1 Findings

Since the samples are not equal across the study and in many cases the results show a significant but weak correlation, I am aware of the incorrectness of strong generalizations. The results in many parts are, however, supported by previous research, which adds to the reliability too. It is also worth noticing that the surveys were conducted in 2005, which was seven years ago. Lots of things have changed during those years. Whether these changes make a significant difference on the happiness results today, is hard to say. However, these results are based on the latest survey by WVS and these results will be analysed until the 6th wave (years 2011-2012) is completed and the data available.

Examining the results shows that the respondents in Finland and Italy are happy. Happiness rate of 90 % or over is very high also when compared to the global results. Some theories imply that citizens around the world are equally happy, whereas some theories support happiness varying indifferent countries (Veenhoven 2010b). The findings of this research support the latter view. However, the purpose of the research was not only to find out if the respondents are happy, but to understand what causes the happiness and how the values towards work reflect on happiness. I noticed, very quickly after starting to analyse the data, that even though I wanted to concentrate on happiness instead of unhappiness, I did the opposite. If most respondents are happy, it is more vital to find out what makes the rest unhappy.

Happiness is not dependent on the sex in this research, men and women are as likely happy in both of the countries' and in the global data. However, women are more likely very happy than men in the global data, hence: both are happy but women are happier. This supports Blanchflower's results, and also Ojanen's findings, since there are no differences among the Finnish responders (Blanchflower 2008; Ojanen 2009). The age does matter, but it does not follow the U-shape that has been found in other studies (e.g. Blanchflower 2008). In all three data older people are less happy than younger people. Happiness seems

to decrease within the age and the responders are also more likely very happy the younger they are. The results are significant, but with weak connection. Education and happiness are connected, which becomes clear with all data and is also supported by previous research (e.g. Bok 2010; Veenhoven 2010b). The results show a significant, but weak connection between happiness and education. Those with no more than primary school education are more likely to be unhappy than those with a higher education. Within the global data happiness increases with education, but in the Finnish and Italian data there are no differences between those with university preparatory studies and university studies.

The profession does not have an effect on happiness in the Finnish data, manual workers can be as likely happy as employers and people working for the army as likely happy as professionals. However, there is a connection between a profession and happiness in the Italian and global data. To sum up, those working in neat, "white collar" jobs are more likely to be happy than those working in factories or outside in physical tasks. Employers are most likely very happy and farmers/agricultural workers less likely very happy. Also unskilled manual workers are more likely unhappy than skilled manual workers. These results are supported by Veenhoven's theory too (Veenhoven 1984). This can be due to worse working conditions and/or tasks or, even more likely, a lower salary and more insecurity. The employment situation has no statistical effect on people's happiness in Italy, but in Finland and in the global data it is clear that unemployed people are less happier than those employed. This is especially the case among job seekers and retired people. This is a strong implication to work having a significant importance to our lives and without work we are more likely to be unhappy. Happiness is also dependent on meeting the local standards of the quality of life and the failure or incapability to reach those standards can lead to low happiness levels (Veenhoven 2010b). Therefore if having a job is a highly valued standard in society, unemployment makes people less happy. The data does not show though for how long the unemployment has lasted or is to last; especially long-standing unemployment increases debt and despair (Helliwell 2003, 342).

Money has an influence on happiness too. Those in the lowest income group are more likely unhappy than those having a higher household income both in Finland and Italy, happiness increase being more straightforward in Finland than in Italy. Also the global data shows that happiness does increase with the income until it reaches a certain point, after the

seventh income step happiness fluctuates only a little (see War 2007). This supports other findings too, those on the upper steps of the income position are happier in the global data, although Veenhoven's study (2010) claims that income increases happiness only in the western world. Veenhoven (2010b) reminds that we are social animals and want to avoid the bottom position. However, in Finland it is possible for those on the second step to be more likely very happy than those on the sixth step.

The importance of work is obvious in both of the countries and on the global scale when looking at the results of working responders. The importance of work is less extreme among the Finnish responders though. There was also a slight correlation between the importance of work and happiness in Finland and on the global scale. There was no connection of happiness and importance of work in the Italian data, but this might be due to the high rate (99%) of the importance of work. What is surprising and rather confusing is that when we compared the overall happy people, the results suggested that people are happier when work is not very important to them. However, if we look at those who are very happy, the results suggest that people finding work very important in all age groups are more likely very happy than the others. E.g. women are more likely happy if work is not so important to them, but both sexes are more likely very happy if work is very important to them. Also the responders in all age groups were more likely unhappy when work was important to them, but more likely very happy if they valued work very important. According to Zemke, Raines and Filipchak (2000) the older, so-called baby boomers, generation values the importance of work very high and people by the work they do. Overall other studies show that work gives us a meaning and identity, without finding it important people might feel outsiders and unhappy (Ojanen 2003; Veenhoven 2008). Work can, of course, be found unimportant due to sickness, issues at home or within a relationship, which might also have an influence on happiness, but are out of the reach of examining within this study.

The profession had nearly no effect on the connection between the importance of work and happiness in Finnish and Italian data, except for Finnish manual workers being more likely unhappy if work was important to them. However, within the global data the effects of the profession were detected. Most people, despite their profession, were more likely very happy if work was important to them. Nevertheless, both manual workers and professionals

were more likely unhappy if work was important to them. These results are rather confusing and there are most likely other variables that could better explain the connection among professions than is possible to examine within this study. The results however, at least suggest that there is an issue to be explored, especially on why valuing work very important seems to increase the possibility for being unhappy, but yet enhance the chances to be very happy.

Work is highly appreciated in all three data, but the arguments are more strongly agreed among the Italian and global responders than the Finnish responders. There is no statistically significant connection between the agreement of statements and happiness in the Finnish and Italian data, but the connection can be detected within the global data. According to the results in analyses with the global data there are less happy people among those who agree with the statements. The same pattern appears among all age groups too, but shows especially in the youngest age group. Women are happier when they disagree with the statement, men when they are rather neutral. The profession does not matter greatly. Those who find work important but do not highly appreciate it, are happier than those who agree. Most of these results support the fact that people are more likely happier when they do not agree with the statements. If we look at the statements, we can only suspect that people who have disagreed with them have more likely other sources of importance and appreciation among work. They might develop their talents at hobbies, are active on other levels of life or value free time. Cultural differences have probably influenced the results too. The statements are also rather extreme.

The respondents were also asked what the most important aspect would be if they were looking for a job. In all three data safety was the most often selected as the first choice. The importance of work was also often selected in the Finnish and Italian data, whereas in the global data income was more often selected than importance as the first choice. People were more often the first choice for the Finnish than Italian or global responders. Income was more often selected in the Italian data than Finnish data.

Safety being most often selected as the first choice suggests that people very highly value their job being safe and not having worries about losing their jobs. This might reflect the current economical situation, or a fear of regression. One would think though that in a

country like Finland where the social security is very good, safety would not be so important to people. Safety was not that often selected as the first choice by respondents with university education in either of the countries and in the global data; the responders with a lower education valued safety more highly. Global data also suggests that safety is more likely chosen by men, the unemployed, the respondents in the age group 50-98 and all other profession groups except employers.

The importance of work was also highly valued as the first choice in Finland and Italy. However, the results show that there are differences among the Finnish, Italian and global data. In the Finnish data the importance was less likely chosen by a younger and less educated responder working as a manual worker. Whereas in the Italian data the unemployed were in the favor of importance when looking for a job. In the global data men, without a university degree, the unemployed and those younger than 50 years were less likely to choose importance. What we do matters to us, not only what we gain from it. According to theories: doing an important job makes us happier, especially if we value it high and we are also happier when other people respect the importance of our work (see Layard 2005; Veenhoven 2010). Doing important work is the first choice especially for those with a university education.

As mentioned before in the theory chapter, part of the happiness at work is to work in an organization where the atmosphere is nice and people enjoy working together. For many people work is also "a source of friends and companionship" (Bok 2010. 156). This does not necessarily mean the same as working with people you like, but it is quite close. Working with people you like seems to be more important in Finland than in Italy, since almost every fifth of the Finnish respondents but only every tenth of the Italian respondents chose it as the first choice. The analyses found no explanations to whom working with nice people matters the most, but we can only speculate why Italians care so much less about working with nice people. Do they get easier along with different people, or are their social connections less strongly linked to work? The analysis of the global data suggests that happy and educated people are more likely to choose people as the first choice, unless they are working as professionals, supervising office workers or manual workers. The results are rather confusing, as one could expect that people working as professionals are also highly educated. However, educated people have most likely higher trust in finding a job and

earning a reasonable salary, therefore they can concentrate more on the atmosphere and co-workers when choosing for a job. This choice clearly needs further investigation before conclusions can be drawn.

The Italian and global respondents valued income more often as the first choice than in Finland, where it was the least wanted first choice. These results do not support the theories that money doesn't matter and income does not significantly increase happiness at work (e.g. Veenhoven 2010; Warr 2007). The Italian respondents valued income a bit more important when choosing a job, especially those working as foremen, supervising office workers or professionals. The Finnish results showed variables having no effects on choosing income as the first choice. In the global data men, responders with a lower level of education, the self-employed and those working either as formen, manual workers or farmers were more likely to choose income as the first choice. These results support other studies, especially when talking about the level of education. Castriota (2006, 1) conducted a study based on the World Bank's World Value Survey and on 118 000 individuals, and found out that a higher income makes everyone happier, but if everything else is equal, those with less education have higher marginal utility of additional incomes.

The first choice and happiness had a statistical connection within the global data. There were more happy people among those who had selected importance of work as the first choice and the highest number of the unhappy among those whose first choice was income. Income and safety can be seen more as essential and basic needs, whereas people and the importance of work are choices made on desires rather than needs, something that would be nice if everything else was secured and well. The hierarchy of Malow's basic needs supports these findings. In the countries where the basic needs of citizens are secured by a social security system and the laws are structured to support employees, people do not necessarily need to be so concerned of the basic needs to be fulfilled, but can concentrate on the higher steps of the hierarchy e.g. self-actualization. Therefore, happiness is not imperatively dependent on having the feeling of the importance at work, but happy people, who can demand to work with nice people and have a feeling of importance of their job, can most likely expect a certain level of safety and income guaranteed. Also the unemployed are more likely to choose safety than importance, and being unemployed rises the chances of being unhappy.

We cannot linearly link happiness and the important aspects when choosing a job. People might not consider their happiness when answering these questions, but what is essential and needed. The question was not about which one of the options would make the responder happy at work. Not all possible options were presented, but only those justified as "the things many people take into account in relation to their work". Some others could also be e.g. the working hours, good management or flexibility (as discussed in the chapter 4). Also the current working conditions surely influence the answers. What is important to realize when interpreting these results is that the explanation rates are very low, this means that there are other more significant variables affecting people's choices than these examined here.

There was no connection between the quality of work and happiness in the Finnish and Italian data, but when looking at the results on the global level we saw a clear connection between the quality of work and happiness. Those results support the theories that people are happier the more cognitive and creative tasks their job includes, regardless of sex, age or profession. Kahneman and Krueger (2006) found the same results in their study; too much routines and simple tasks do not create positive attitudes. Dahlen (2008) highlights the importance of creativity at workplace happiness. Independence at work makes responders happier. This is supported by many studies and articles written about the importance of independence and autonomy when wanting to enhance the happiness at work (e.g. Benz&Fray 2004; Layard 2005). Even though the correlations between the quality of work and happiness were weak but significant, these conclusions can be drawn, since other studies support the findings. The quality of a job matters when we want to increase happiness at work. Layard (2005, 68) especially highlights the importance of having control over what we do, saying: "There is a creative spark in each of us, and if it finds no outlet, we feel half-dead". Julkunen (2008) however, argues that autonomy is more widely available to managers and people in professional jobs, and more common to what is typically seen as men's jobs. Autonomy highlights high trust and therefore it is something that needs to be achieved. It can also easily turn to longer working hours and spreading of the work due to the self-control – or lack of it. (Julkunen 2008, 108.)

In many cases there were differences among the Finnish, Italian and global results, but, many similarities too. The small samples of Finnish and Italian variables in some cases

most likely influenced the insignificant results. Therefore the presence of the global data was important in this study. The lack of statistical connections in the Finnish and Italian data does not mean though that the global conclusions are absolutely out of the question in these two countries. Since most of the differences among the data are already discussed before, I will highlight only some main results here. The results suggest that the Finnish responders are happier than the Italian and global responders. Also the values towards work and its appreciation are slightly less extreme in Finland compared to the others. However, in many cases the Finnish analyses showed similar results to the global analyses, whereas there were more often differences in the Italian data. This suggests that further research on the differences and finding explanations is needed. Since the purpose of this empirical part was to find out if there were differences among these three data, explanations for the differences and answers to the question "why" are left for another study.

One of the research questions referred to the suitability of using this survey in measuring happiness at work. I will answer this question in the following chapter.

6.2 Discussion

The analyses showed clear connections between happiness and questions concerning work in the survey. Even though the connections were often weak they were still significant and clear patterns were detected. Since the results were also supported by previous studies, certain conclusions were made. The given research questions were answered and the study added some more information on the topic. However, since the data was secondary data and the questions were designed by somebody else, I was not able to have any influence on the questions. Therefore some aspects discussed in the theory section were not possible to be examined. Quite interesting topics were left out, since the work-related questions were districted.

Also, as mentioned several times before, I acknowledge the problems faced by the fact that this was not a work-based study. This was a survey investigating the values towards different topics and work was just one of those topics. Some other questions were work-

related, but since they did not concern the actual work but asked about the values on a general level, I had to exclude them, since they did not give answers to my research questions. Also, even though the analyses showed statistically significant connections between variables, in some cases the explanation rates were so low that it was obvious there were other variables that could have explained the connections better. Due to the type of the study, some variables having an effect on connections were detected, but the study failed in explaining the connections on deeper levels. However, that was not the purpose either.

Since I haven't found any other studies focusing on connections between work and happiness based on this data, the results were quite meaningful and brought up new information of the data. Still, this data is most likely not the best source to examine happiness at work. However, it did show clear connections between variables and was able to emphasize certain topics discussed in the theory section. I will therefore answer the research question concerning the suitability of this data on happiness at work, that the data does explain happiness at work on some level and certain generalizations can be made. To really understand all different aspects influencing happiness at work, this survey, however, is not the best possible source.

I have also considered about the relationship between happiness and happiness at work. The latter is a part of the first, but they both influence each other. A person cannot be fully happy if unhappy at work and vice verse (see Gavin & Mason 2004; Sirgy & Wu 2009). Both of them are very subjective and influenced by many different aspects. Both of them are also highly dependent on the expectations and values within society (e.g. Layard 2005). As with overall happiness, happiness at work can be enhanced with certain aspects and standards, but none of these can guarantee happiness, since it is experienced so subjectively. Happiness can be accessed by all, but happiness at work is mostly highlighted in western societies, where it is about self-actualization rather than survival. Many aspects of happiness and happiness at work are uncontrollable, but both the personality and attitudes have great power on enhancing happiness both in life and at work (see Varila&Viholainen 2000). With happiness and happiness at work same questions can be asked: are they needed and who is responsible? I have tried to answer these questions within this study.

I agree with the scientists calling happiness studies the studies of the future. It might not be correct to call it a "new science" yet, but that will probably change within the next decade, since so many recent articles are already demanding attention to this subject. This topic also unites many different disciplines. Maximal materializing has very likely come to its end and deeper meanings for what we gain from our efforts and work are needed. This is so, at least, in western societies.

Happiness at work cannot really be compared globally. The culture, the government, history and the economic situation vary so enormously that they make it nearly impossible to compare how work adds happiness on people's lives in different countries. If a person is highly reliable on work to feed his/her family and to get a shelter at night, s/he less likely demands changes in work conditions for happiness, but having a job overall makes one happy. We cannot really compare the need for happiness at work in Burkina Faso and Finland. In Finland your survival is not dependent on your work, the welfare society keeps you alive with or without it. Maslow's hierarchy has a point here: you need to take the steps from bottom to up. The basic needs need to be satisfied first. Looking for happiness at work is more an exclusive desire, and "dilemma" mainly in the most developed and richest countries. However, comparison is not what we should aim at, but understanding. We do not really need to know how much happier people are in other countries, but to understand what the aspects influencing the happiness of citizens are. For the cultural understanding it is also valuable to understand how different these values and aspects are. This is not the easiest tasks and needs lots of research and discussion, and is most likely why there were so few studies trying to solve the cultural differences behind happiness.

We seem to like lists telling us who scores the highest. Every now and then media brings to us articles of the happiest and unhappiest countries in the world. We tend to believe in those listings and create images of the countries and societies based on the ratings. These listings are, no matter how scientifically correctly made, still subjective and concentrate on certain aspects only. I also want to highlight the fact that not all the 196 countries in the world are listed in these ratings. The ratings made by World Value Survey, the World Database on Happiness and Better life index by OECD are all based on a limited number of countries. Therefore, we cannot declare the happiest or unhappiest countries of all. A closer look at the databases has also exposed the fact of a very low number of respondents in

certain countries. Do 1000 respondents truly present the values of 65 million French people, or 1500 the opinions of more than 93 million Ethiopians? This, however, is the case in the World Value Survey I have used as my data. I call it questionable generalization and think it should be more clearly pointed out when presenting the results in the Media.

I am however, very aware of the problems happiness studies face with and need to solve. These are all discussed earlier in the thesis. Even though asking people how happy they are subjectively is the easiest way to get answers, I am not sure how well the 1-4 scale works. Since happiness can be seen and felt so differently, it might be difficult to choose from four given options. I wonder how much more detailed and explanatory the analyses would have been had happiness been asked on the 1 to 10 scale.

Happiness is not the easiest goal to achieve, neither for an individual nor for the society. Since it consists of so many different aspects, even achieving the highest level in all the possible conditions does not guarantee happiness. As Michalos (2007, 16) says:

> "One just has to aim for a maximally inclusive, comprehensive and balance account of well-being and then hope for the best. There are no guarantees of hitting the target."

One of the main conclusions is that happiness measures are needed. We need to have enough information to establish baseline levels and proceed to more solid research. This research can provide policy possibilities on the way to mere happiness to all citizens of the world. Naturally, these policies need to be assessed and monitored in field trial conditions before adapting them (Halliwell & Wang 2012, 22). Hence I want to remind that WVS was created to tell policy-makers about the values and opinions of the citizens.

One minor conclusion is about education. This study, as other studies before it, shows that the level of education has significant effects on happiness. Therefore I will enclose one chapter here to discuss connection between education and happiness. I will mainly concentrate on the benefits of higher education. Even though this is an important variable within happiness, it is not in the main interest of my topic. Therefore the subject is discussed only briefly and works merely as an appetizer for possible further studies.

6.3 Education and happiness

According to Bok (2010, 156) education is one of the most important factors when wanting to enhance the happiness of citizens:

> "It stands to reason that any serious attempt to increase well-being should give a prominent place to education. Schools and universities are the obvious institutions to assume this responsibility by trying to cultivate interests and supply the knowledge that will help young people make more enlightened choices about how to live their lives."

Since research shows that education is one of the main factors in creating happiness, shouldn't more money be given to schools and universities to raise the happiness levels of citizens? Why does it seem to be the exact opposite now? Bynner, Schuller and Feinstein (2003) are worried about the financial control exercised by the Finance Ministry in England and for education being subjected to claim its share in budget allocations. They say that educationalists should try to answer the methodological challenges faced with in the reductions. (Bynner, Schuller & Feinstein 2003, 347.)

From a political point of view the meaning of education on happiness has even higher outcomes. Society requires knowledge and ideas for a stable happiness of the overall society. Capital and labor are not enough. Education can provide the base and the source for the human capital. (Crocker 2002, 1.) Political scientists have also found a correlation between education and voting rates. Political activity is much higher among those who have a university education than among lower educated citizens. (Bok 2010, 168.) When people are educated they are more likely to feel part of society than alienated from it, this is because they feel that society has something to offer (Bynner 2003, 351).

Social activity and belongingness are found to increase the happiness levels of individuals (Veenhoven 2010b). Presten and Hammond (2002) explain this by education promoting social integration. Education is found to be very effective in developing social networks and lowering tensions between ethnic and age groups. These, in return, increase tolerance and active citizenships. (Presten & Hammond 2002, 3.) Education is obviously not the only factor to enhance joining, engaging and trusting in society, but it is a powerful predictor according to Green, Presten and Sabates (2003). They also note that even when other

variables such as wealth, income, age and gender are controlled, education still holds an important base to encourage for social activity. (Green, Presten & Sabates 2003, 3.)

As within this study, research shows that highly educated people are more likely to be happy with their lives. This is mainly not only because of universities providing capabilities for their students, but because educated people have got better-paid jobs and have more self-disciplines to maintain healthy habits (Bok 2010, 169). Being healthy correlates significantly with happiness too. Educated people are healthier: the tendency to obesity and to smoke decreases within education, especially within higher education (Hayward, Pannozzo & Colmen 2005, 37).

It is not only about the physical health, but taking part in learning helps people to sustain their mental health too. Depression, caused by unemployment and material poverty, is much more likely among those without education. (Bynner et al. 2003, 350, 354.) The Center for Research of the Wider Benefits has investigated the benefits gained from learning across the life course since 1999. In one of their research reports Preston and Hammond (2002) list esteem and efficacy as the most important benefits of further education. According to them esteem may lead to improved psychological health and efficiency to increased activity to participate in the community. (Preston & Hammond 2002,4.)

Another explanation for a higher happiness among the highly educated is that they most often have personal characteristics and family backgrounds more suitable to happiness. According to Dockery (2010, 41) those who have achieved university-level education often have parents with greater wealth, and they have less likely moved from home at an early age. He highlights that these aspects also have a lasting impact on happiness. (Dockery 2010, 41; see also Castriota 2006, 8.) These aspects are especially crucial in the countries where education costs and the tuition fees of universities are high.

What is it then, that universities should value when desiring to support the future happiness of their students? According to Bok (2010) this is not sufficiently explored. What is still unknown and little searched for, is what kind of participations and experiences at schools and universities actually lead to greater happiness in lives. Bok asks why universities

devote so much for providing a broad education, but value so little to the outcomes of their efforts on their alumni. He suggests that universities should focus more on finding answers to the question: how can we enhance the happiness of our students also years after graduation? (Bok 2010, 170.)

One thing that universities can do in pursuit to increase happiness is to teach them what is known of it – the methods of measuring, the accuracy of results and, naturally, also the findings. The interest on happiness at universities is already growing. Recently the University of Harvard launched a course on happiness, which attracted over 800 undergraduates (Bok 2010, 171). The number of students tells about the interest and also about the need for similar courses in faculties around the world.

Work is one aspect of happiness, as has also been discussed in this thesis. For many, it might not be the most important aspect though. Many satisfying and enjoyable activities occur outside the workplace. Therefore Bok (2010) suggests that schools and universities should not only concentrate on training students for their future jobs, but also cultivate their interests on many levels and prepare them for a variety of options and aspects that can increase happiness in their lives. This has not, however, been the main goal of political leaders e.g. in the United States during the last decades. Their main goal has been to train the students to help the country's economy to grow. (Bok 2010, 157.)

Veenhoven (2010b) claims that even though there is a correlation between happiness and the level of education, not all highly educated are happy. Hartog and Oosterbeek (1998) have also found out in their study, that higher education does not necessarily bring up the happiest citizens. They made a survey among 1893 Dutch individuals and to their surprise the results showed that the happiest group of all where those with only a secondary education of a general, non-vocational nature. They were also healthier and wealthier than any other education groups. Veenhoven (1996) says that in the advanced countries the effect of education may have become negative. (Hartog & Oosterbeek 1998.) Dockery (2010) conducted a longitudinal study of happiness and education in Australia in the years 1997-2005. According to his studies there was no significant association between these two subjects. What mattered the most was how high the expectations for the level of education in the future were and whether they were achieved or not. (Dockery 2010, 23.)

One of the most significant findings of Dockery's research was the influence of the country's economics on happiness. He found out that those with university certificates were more concerned on how the economy is run in their country and this shaped their happiness too. Whereas the happiness of those with a lower education was dependent more on their lives at home and the standard of living. What made this finding so astounding is that people usually express the lowest levels of happiness on the factor of how the country is run. (Dockery 2010, 27.)

A high level of education has its downsizes too. Castriata (2006) discusses the expectations highly educated people meet especially in the field of work. It is not only the high expectations that they have for their careers and which are more difficult to meet, but also the expectations of others. If a person is overqualified it does not only possibly make him/her frustrated, but the society often sees it as inefficient and a waste of resources. (Castriata 2006, 8.) Education can also lead to depression (Bynner 2003, 356). These are supported by the findings of Dockery as well as the thoughts of Layard (2005, 73) that happiness is not only what we achieve, but also how we fulfill the expectations created by ourselves and the societies around us. Also, according to Clark and Oswald, (2002, 1140) the aspiration levels rise among education.

The higher educated are often healthier and wealthier than the average. Maybe the education itself does not bring happiness, but its outcomes do. Hayward et al. (2005, 64) also remind that a more important indicator of happiness than high-education, is the population's average literacy score. The better educated the whole population is, the higher the chances are for the overall happiness of the nation.

What could the role of education sciences in enhancing happiness be then? On primary school level it could search for answers and guidelines on how to promote enjoyment, and to courage and support children in developing a positive attitude towards life. The happiness of pupils, both as a success factor and an outcome, and the contribution of education to lifelong happiness should be considered. On the university level happiness classes could be more widely offered and also integrated within other studies than philosophy or psychology. Happiness at work could be enhanced trough education too. Management studies and business schools can promote more information on the customs

on how to create happier work places and what are the advantages of doing so. Through work-place education the employees can be helped with finding positive synergies between work and personal life, and employers can learn to monitor workplace happiness and ways to provide meaningful and enjoyable work experiences. (see Thin 2012, 14.)

Thin (2012) suggests following questions to be asked under the education sector: "Is happiness recognized as an educational objective? Are the direct outcomes of education, such as wisdom and skills, plausibly linked to happiness? Is the enjoyment of education to be monitored? Does educational research focus on correlations between happiness indicators and other educational indicators?" (Thin 2012, 30.) These could be good questions to start with. Also, if we look at table 3, we can see that many studies across the happiness research have found out that education increases happiness. These studies and findings should be acknowledged and taken into use. Just like happiness economics, happiness education could very well be a mixture of different scientific approaches, such as all those mentioned in this thesis. Philosophers, psychologists, sociologists and economists all would surely have a lot to give to happiness education, too.

7 Conclusions

Let me summarize briefly the main findings of this thesis and then draw some conclusions about further research.

The theory part suggests that happiness can be defined and examined. Since happiness studies is still a rather new field, there are many dilemmas to be solved yet. Also the cultural differences need to be taken into a closer study if differences on happiness levels among countries are to be examined. Happiness at work is becoming a more important issue in the change of working generations and values towards work. Different aspects such as the quality of work, the importance of work environment and management, and the

working hours are already considered to have an effect on happiness at work. These and many other aspects need to be taken into consideration in recruiting, creating work policies and planning budgets or employee education. Happiness at work is found to increase the quality of results, motivation and employee commitment among other things. This study also brings up the current discussion of happiness in economics and politics, and suggests that happiness studies are accurate enough to provide the best possible general view. Happiness aspect in politics is justifiable, not only because happy people are also better citizens, but to prevent the welfare states becoming intellectually and spiritually poor. Since education is also one of the most important bases for happiness to grow, the role of education should be even more highly acknowledged in today's and tomorrow's politics.

The results of the empirical part suggest that people are happy around the world; happiness decreasing with the age, the educated being happier than the uneducated and the employed happier than the unemployed. People working in neat "white collar" jobs are more likely happy than those working in factories or outdoors. A reasonable income makes us happier, until a certain level is reached. Work is important to people, but slightly less important in Finland than in Italy or among the global responders. The importance of work increases the chances for deeper happiness and the connection is affected by sex, age and profession. Work is highly appreciated, especially among the Italian and the global responders. People are happier when work is not so highly appreciated, also among those who find work important. This suggests that people are happier when they find work important, but do not see it as the main source of meaning and self-actualization in life. Safety matters the most when looking for a job, but Finns and Italians find the importance of work meaningful too. The income is a more important aspect in job-hunting on the global and Italian levels, whereas the Finnish responders value working with nice people more highly than the other two. There are more happy people among those who have selected importance for work as the first choice, than among those to whom income is the most important aspect. People are more likely happy when the quality of work is high, that is when their job consists of creative and cognitive tasks and when they have a feeling of independence, regardless of sex, age or profession.

In many cases even though the correlation was significant it was rather weak. Also due to the nonparametric nature of the data, only a few analyses were possible to use. Even though

the crosstabs analysis is as reliable as any other, it cannot show similar connections and findings as parametric multivariate analyses, such as a variance analysis. The weakness of the relationships and the nature of survey not focusing on work solely leads to a following conclusion: although I found apparent effects of work related issues on happiness in the quantitative study, I do not interpret these in a linear way. Rather, there is evidence that working conditions play a significant role in enhancing the happiness of individuals. The results need further testing and theoretical discussion before being included as positive or negative measures of happiness. However, these results suggest that employers should try to add the employee's independence and possibility to influence his/her own work. The fight against unemployment should also be more powerful. Besides, the influence of education should be better understood and valued, within employee education as well.

The potential for further studies is vast. This topic could be looked at from many different angles, and many different details could be taken into a closer study. Beyond the survey analysis as a method lies the need for interviewing people from both Finland and Italy. A narrative study could be used too. Since happiness is subjective, it would be very useful to have quotes from the responders to bring the research closer and to make it more interpreting. After all, happiness is not only about numbers.

Different countries could be selected to a closer study and there are many options. Also results from different continents or the groups of countries could be examined. Comparing all 5 waves of WVS would be interesting too. Since the data has been collected for good thirty years, a longitudinal study is possible. It is much used in happiness studies and could provide information about changes in values and happiness levels. However, even though many questions are similar from one wave to another, there are major changes between the surveys too. Comparing the values that are surveyed, would add an interesting perspective.

However, the most important future research should be a similar survey conducted around the world in many different countries solely concentrating on the values towards work. This way the results would be more valuable in happiness studies focusing on work. Future studies should also focus more on bringing up softer values, such as relationships between people and personal values and expectations towards work, which might diverse greatly

between different countries and continents, and have an influence on the answers. Studies concentrating not only on "how" but "why" certain connections exist, are needed.

Other happiness at work –related studies could examine the role and responsibility of management in creating happiness at a workplace, or if people are happier or unhappier when working abroad (according to Frey and Stutzer (2000) foreigners are unhappier in Switzerland due to their low possibilities to influence the politics and to gain from it), or to make an hypothetical study of how much happier (or unhappier) our future would be, if we were all working as entrepreneurs (see Benz & Frey 2004).

As said, the potentials for future studies are vast. Happiness at work is not widely studied and surprisingly little of the research has found its way into use and e.g. to organizational psychology (Judge & Klinger 2008, 406). This paper strongly emphasizes the importance of happiness research and focusing on the happiness at work. The values towards the meaning of work are changing; people demand happiness and quality in all aspects of their lives.

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Appendices

Appendix 1

Recoded variables

Profession

Employer/ manager of establishment with 10 or more employees Employer/ manager of establishment with less than 10 employees	employer
Professional worker lawyer, accountant, teacher, etc	professional
Supervisory - office worker: supervises others	supervising office worker
Non-manual - office worker: non-supervisory	office worker
Foreman and supervisor	foremen/supervisor
skilled manual worker semi-skilled manual worker unskilled manual worker	manual worker
Farmer: has own farm agricultural worker	farmer/agriculture worker
Member of armed forces, security personnel	army/security

Education

No formal education Incomplete primary school Complete primary school	primary school
Incomplete secondary school: technical/ vocational type Complete secondary school: technical/ vocational type	secondary/vocational
Incomplete secondary school: university-preparatory type Complete secondary school: university-preparatory type	secondary/university preparatory
Some university-level education, without degree University - level education, with degree	university

Importance of work

Very important Rather important	important	Very important	very important
Not very important Not at all important	unimportant	Rather important Not very important Not at all important	others

Agreeing – disagreeing with statements

Strongly agree Agree	Agree
Neither	Neither
Disagree Strongly disagree	Disagree

Happiness

Very happy Rather happy	Happy
Not very happy Not at all happy	Unhappy

Appendix 2

Selected questions from the questionnaire

2005-2006 WORLD VALUES SURVEY

(*Show Card A*)
For each of the following, indicate how important it is in your life. Would you say it is (*read out and code one answer for each*):

		Very important	Rather important	Not very important	Not at all important
V4.	Family	1	2	3	4
V5.	Friends	1	2	3	4
V6.	Leisure time	1	2	3	4
V7.	Politics	1	2	3	4
V8.	Work	1	2	3	4
V9.	Religion	1	2	3	4

(*NOTE: Code but do not read out-- here and throughout the interview*):   -1 **Don't know**
-2 **No answer**
-3 **Not applicable**

Note: only question v8. Work was selected.

V10.   Taking all things together, would you say you are (*read out and code one answer*):

1   Very happy
2   Rather happy
3   Not very happy
4   Not at all happy

V48.   Now I would like to ask you something about the things which would seem to you, personally, most important if you were looking for a job. Here are some of the things many people take into account in relation to their work. Regardless of whether you're actually looking for a job, which one would you, personally, place first if you were looking for a job (*read out and code one answer*):

1   A good income so that you do not have any worries about money
2   A safe job with no risk of closing down or unemployment
3   Working with people you like
4   Doing an important job that gives you a feeling of accomplishment

Please specify for each of the following statements how strongly you agree or disagree with it! Do you strongly agree, agree, neither agree nor disagree, disagree or strongly disagree? (*Read out and code one answer for each statement*):

		Strongly agree	Agree	Neither	Disagree	Strongly disagree
V50.	To fully develop your talents, you need to have a job.	1	2	3	4	5
V51.	It is humiliating to receive money without working for it.	1	2	3	4	5
V52.	People who don't work become lazy.	1	2	3	4	5
V53.	Work is a duty toward society.	1	2	3	4	5
V54.	Work should always come first, even if it means less free time.	1	2	3	4	5

V235. (*Code respondent's sex by observation*):
  1   Male
  2   Female

V237. This means you are _____ years old (*write in age in two digits*).

V238. What is the highest educational level that you have attained? [*NOTE: if respondent indicates to be a student, code highest level s/he expects to complete*]:
  1   No formal education
  2   Incomplete primary school
  3   Complete primary school
  4   Incomplete secondary school: technical/vocational type
  5   Complete secondary school: technical/vocational type
  6   Incomplete secondary: university-preparatory type
  7   Complete secondary: university-preparatory type
  8   Some university-level education, without degree
  9   University-level education, with degree

V241. Are you employed now or not? If yes, about how many hours a week? If more than one job: only for the main job (*code one answer*):

Yes, has paid employment:
  Full time employee (30 hours a week or more)   1
  Part time employee (less than 30 hours a week)   2
  Self employed   3
No, no paid employment:
  Retired/pensioned   4
  Housewife not otherwise employed   5
  Student   6
  Unemployed   7
  Other (*write in*):_____   8

V242. In which profession/occupation are you doing most of your work? If you do not work currently, characterize your major work in the past! What is/was your job there?

_____ (*write in and code due to list below but do not read out list!*)

1   Employer/manager of establishment with 10 or more employees
2   Employer/manager of establishment with less than 10 employees
3   Professional worker lawyer, accountant, teacher, etc
4   Supervisory - office worker: supervises others.
5   Non-manual - office worker: non-supervisory
6   Foreman and supervisor
7   Skilled manual worker
8   Semi-skilled manual worker
9   Unskilled manual worker
10 Farmer: has own farm
11 Agricultural worker
12 Member of armed forces, security personnel
13 Never had a job

V244. Are the tasks you perform at work mostly manual or mostly cognitive? If you do not work currently, characterize your major work in the past. Use this scale where 1 means "mostly manual tasks" and 10 means "mostly cognitive tasks" (*code one answer*):

Mostly **manual** tasks									Mostly **cognitive** tasks
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

V245. Are the tasks you perform at work mostly routine tasks or mostly creative tasks? If you do not work currently, characterize your major work in the past. Use this scale where 1 means "mostly routine tasks" and 10 means "mostly creative tasks" (*code one answer*):

Mostly **routine** tasks									Mostly **creative** tasks
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

V246. How much independence do you have in performing your tasks at work? If you do not work currently, characterize your major work in the past. Use this scale to indicate your degree of independence where 1 means "no independence at all" and 10 means "complete independence" (*code one answer*):

No independence at all									Complete independence
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

(*Show Card AE*)

V253. On this card is a scale of incomes on which 1 indicates the "lowest income decile" and 10 the "highest income decile" in your country. We would like to know in what group your household is. Please, specify the appropriate number, counting all wages, salaries, pensions and other incomes that come in. (*Code one number*):

Lowest decile									Highest decile
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

Appendix 3

List of countries in the 5th wave

Andorra [2005], Argentina [2006], Australia [2005], Brazil [2006], Bulgaria [2006], Burkina Faso [2007], Canada [2006], Colombia [2005], Cyprus [2006], Chile [2006], China [2007], Egypt [2008], Ethiopia [2007], Finland [2005], France [2006], Georgia [2008], Germany [2006], Ghana [2007], Great Britain [2006], Guatemala [2004], Hong Kong, China [2005], India [2006], Indonesia [2006], Iraq [2006], Iran [2005], Italy [2005], Japan [2005], Jordan [2007], Malaysia [2006], Mali [2007], Mexico [2005], Moldova [2006], Morocco [2007], Netherlands [2006], New Zealand [2004], Norway [2007], Peru [2006], Poland [2005], Romania [2005], Russian Federation [2006], Rwanda [2007], Serbia [2006], Slovenia [2005], South Africa [2007], South Korea [2005], Spain [2007], Sweden [2006], Switzerland [2007], Taiwan [2006], Thailand [2007], Trinidad and Tobago [2006], Turkey [2007], Ukraine [2006], United States [2006], Uruguay [2006], Viet Nam [2006], Zambia [2007]

Appendix 4

Facts of Finland and Italy listed by CIA (n.d.) and EU (n.d.)

	Finland	Italy
Government type	republic	republic
Independency	1917	1861
Year of EU entry	1995	1952 (founding member)
GDP	$ 196,7 billion	$ 1,822 trillion
Location	Northern Europe	Southern Europe
Area total	338,145 km2	301,340 km2
Ethnic groups	Finn 93,4 %, Swede 5,6 %, Sami 0,1 %	Italian - small clusters of German-, French-, Slovene-, Albanian- and Greek-Italians
Official languages	Finnish 91,2 %, Swedish 5,5, %	Italian
Religions	Lutherans 82,5 %, Orthodox 1,1 %, other 1,1 %	Christian 80 %, Muslims (about 700 000 and growing)
Population	5,3 million	60 million
Age structure 0-14 15-64 65-	16 % 66,1 % 17,8 %	13,8 % 65,9 % 20,3 %
Median age	42,5 years	43,5 years
Literacy rate	100%	98,4 %
School life expectancy	17 years	16 years
Unemployed, youth age 15-24	20,5 %	25,4 %
Unemployed all	7,8 %	8,4 %
Key features	High standard of education, equality promotion, rational social security system	Persistent problems with illegal immigration, organized crime and high unemployment