

THE INTERNATIONAL POLITICAL ECONOMY OF JOB QUALITY
CHARACTERISTICS AND WORKER SATISFACTION:
A CROSS-NATIONAL COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS

by

Jonathan Hinton Westover

A dissertation submitted to the faculty of
The University of Utah
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Department of Sociology

The University of Utah

May 2011

Copyright© Jonathan Hinton Westover 2011

All Rights Reserved

The University of Utah Graduate School

STATEMENT OF DISSERTATION APPROVAL

The dissertation of Jonathan Hinton Westover

has been approved by the following supervisory committee members:

Michael Timberlake, Chair August 26, 2010
Date Approved

Kim Korinek, Member August 26, 2010
Date Approved

Julie Stewart, Member August 26, 2010
Date Approved

William Hesterly, Member August 26, 2010
Date Approved

Cheol-Sung Lee, Member August 26, 2010
Date Approved

and by Jeffrey Kentor, Chair of
the Department of Sociology

and by Charles A. Wight, Dean of The Graduate School.

ABSTRACT

Cross-disciplinary academic research has consistently shown how job satisfaction is closely related to many other important organizational, institutional, economic, social, and individual outcomes. Furthermore, countless studies have examined the various determinants of job satisfaction (intrinsic/extrinsic rewards, workplace relationships, workplace quality characteristics, and individual dispositional factors). Additionally, there is a growing body of comparative research examining cross-cultural differences in job satisfaction and its determinants. However, the existing research cannot explain the similarities in job satisfaction levels across different sorts of countries, nor can it explain the differences between seemingly similar countries. Moreover, there has been no significant research conducted to date that has examined the country-level structural and contextual conditions that are poised to significantly impact workplace conditions, and thereby worker satisfaction and its determinants. In this research, I address this existing gap in the academic literature on job satisfaction by using nonpanel longitudinal data from the International Social Survey Program (Work Orientations I, II, and III: 1989, 1997, and 2005—survey questions on job characteristics and job quality) to examine cross-national differences in job satisfaction and its determinants. First, I use bivariate descriptive procedures, OLS regression, and hierarchical linear modeling to test for statistically significant variation across countries. Second, I compare and combine previous theoretical work surrounding globalization and the role of the state to examine

and explore the macrolevel variables behind these country differences, resulting in differences in work quality characteristics and the perceived worker satisfaction cross nationally.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT	iii
Chapters	
1 INTRODUCTION.....	1
Defining the Problem and Research Question	1
Author’s Unique Contributions to the Literature	4
Overview of the Format of the Dissertation	6
2 REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE.....	8
Overview of Job Quality and Job Satisfaction Research	8
What Is Missing in this Research?	18
The International Political Economy of Job Quality and Worker Satisfaction	21
Theoretical Framework: Combining Theories of Global Development, Work Quality, and Job Satisfaction	36
3 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY.....	39
Hypotheses	39
Description of the Data to be Used in this Research	45
Operationalization of Variables	48
Description of Data Analysis Methods	55
Limitations of Data	57
4 ANALYSIS OF DATA.....	59
Aggregate and Country-Specific Descriptive Analysis and Results	59
Aggregate and Country-Specific OLS and HLM Regression Results and Hypotheses Testing	70

5	FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS.....	116
	Brief Summary of the Study	116
	Brief Review of the Main Study Findings	119
	Conclusions and Discussion Related to the Research Questions	124
	Limitations of the Research.....	135
	Implications of the Research	137
	Contributions and Future Research	138
APPENDICES		
	A: OPERATIONALIZATION OF KEY VARIABLES AND SAMPLE VARIABLES	142
	B: ISSP WORK ORIENTATIONS PARTICIPATING COUNTRIES, 1989, 1997, AND 2005	149
	C: INTERCORRELATION OF STUDY VARIABLES, 1989, 1997, AND 2005	151
	D: TABULATION/MEAN COMPARISON TABLES FOR INDIVIDUAL-LEVEL CONTROLS, BY COUNTRY AND YEAR.....	158
	E: AGGREGATED OLS REGRESSION RESULTS,1989, 1997, AND 2005	166
	F: COUNTRY-SPECIFIC OLS REGRESSION RESULTS, 1989, 1997, AND 2005	170
	REFERENCES	183

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Defining the Problem and Research Question

Since Hoppock's seminal work on the topic in 1935, job satisfaction has continued to generate interest across disciplines, from psychology (Argyle, 1989) and sociology (Hodson, 1985; Kalleberg & Loscocco, 1983), to economics (Freeman, 1978; Hamermesh, 2001), management sciences (Hunt & Saul, 1975), and public administration (Durst & DeSantis, 1997; Jung et al., 2007; Wright & Kim, 2004). The interest in job satisfaction, as much for researchers as for practitioners, is due to several factors. Satisfied workers are more productive (Appelbaum & Kamal, 2000), deliver higher quality of work (Tietjen & Myers, 1998), and improve a firm's competitiveness and success (Garrido et al., 2005). Conversely, unsatisfied workers are more frequently late for work, absent from work, and motivated to leave the firm (Blau, 1994; Lee, 1998).

Additionally, many researchers have suggested an increasing importance in the role that our work plays in our everyday lives, with most able-body individuals spending at least one-half or more of their waking hours in the workplace (in one form or another), and with the landscape of work in the U.S. and across the world changing dramatically over the past 15-20 years in response to economic shifts, technological advances, and an

increasingly global economy (e.g., Handel, 2005; Jamison et al., 2004). As work plays an increasingly significant role in our lives, and as different workplaces are unique—each with its own particular set of characteristics, it is important to understand what it is about the workplace that impacts our lives and how these characteristics impact a worker’s overall job satisfaction.

The vast cross-disciplinary literature exploring work quality and job satisfaction has linked worker experiences to many individual, organizational, and social outcomes, yet this research has largely failed to shed much light on why cross-national differences in worker satisfaction and its determinants persist over time. An often accepted job satisfaction model, commonly considered to be widely generalizable across a wide variety of cross-cultural and cross-national contexts, actually appears to have a lack of applicability across countries. For example, existing research has been unable to answer any of the following types of questions pertaining to cross-national differences in job satisfaction:

- Why was there a dip in overall cross-national job satisfaction levels from 1989 to 1997, but then a significant rise from 1997 to 2005 (to above 1989 levels)?
- Why do some rich countries, like the U.S. and U.K., have significantly different levels of job satisfaction?
- Why do some poor countries, like the Philippines and Slovenia, have significantly different levels of job satisfaction?

- Why do some poor countries like Latvia, Slovenia, the Czech Republic, and Mexico have such similar job satisfaction levels to relatively richer countries like Switzerland and Spain?
- Why do Norway, Switzerland, and Sweden have significantly lower job satisfaction levels than Finland?
- Why does Spain have significantly lower job satisfaction levels than France?
- Why do Japan and Taiwan have significantly lower job satisfaction levels than their Asian neighbors, South Korea and the Philippines?

The core questions driving this research are: (1) what are the empirical cross-national differences in job characteristics and job satisfaction, and (2) what are the causes behind these differences? Cross-cultural researchers would suggest that any such differences would all be due to cultural differences between countries. However, the limited research that explores work quality characteristics and job satisfaction from a cross-cultural perspective has largely failed to show how countries with similar cultural orientations still experience significant differences and how countries with different cultural orientations still experience similarities.

The question remains, what are the causes for these country differences. More specifically, what are the key country-level contextual and global-macro variables driving these country differences in job characteristics and perceived worker satisfaction (which is of increasing relevance in the age of an ever more globalized economy and hyper-competitive global marketplace)? Existing research cannot answer these and other related questions. Like many work attitudes, job satisfaction is a dynamic construct that

changes in response to personal and environmental conditions. Monitoring job satisfaction over time and in different contexts will allow one to better examine and understand the salient factors that affect job satisfaction.

To be able to examine these questions and further explore possible explanations and mechanisms by which these relationships unfold, future research needs to address the following areas. First, future research needs to better understanding the linkage between various job quality characteristics and worker satisfaction. Furthermore, there is a need to better understand how worker satisfaction relates to many other important organizational, institutional, economic, social, and individual outcomes. Finally, there is a need to better understand cross-national differences in these relationships and what these differences mean for various stakeholders (e.g., employers, employees, labor unions, governments, etc.).

The overall purpose in conducting this research is to (1) empirically test (using various bivariate descriptive procedures, OLS regression, and hierarchal linear modeling) significant, cross-national differences in job satisfaction and its determents and (2) explore the reasons for these cross-national differences, moving beyond the research of social psychologists and organizational behavior researchers, to also include import macro cross-national social, political, economic, and cultural factors that directly influence these differences.

Author's Unique Contributions to the Literature

In explaining cross-national differences in job satisfaction and its determinants, this research makes several contributions to the current comparative cross-national job

satisfaction literature. First, much research has been conducted that shows either the general improvement or decline in the quality of work, but few studies have looked at such changes in work quality cross-nationally, over time from the perspective of the workers. Handel (2005) made important theoretical contributions in this regard (using the macro Post and Neo-Fordist frameworks to understand changes in job satisfaction and job quality characteristics), but he examined only the U.S. workplace and did not look at global trends and differences cross-nationally. Two relatively recent studies have looked cross-nationally at indicators of job quality and job satisfaction (Munoz de Bustillo Llorente, 2005; Sousa-Pouza & Sousa-Pouza, 2000). However, in the case of the first project, the authors dismissed previous findings based on their simplified cross-national design, and generally failed to acknowledge the value in self-perceived scoring indicators in addressing something that is inherently self-perceived—namely job satisfaction and job characteristics. Furthermore, the authors used more of a case study approach to rely more on objective workplace measures in Spain (namely unemployment rate, index of overwork, level of income, salary behavior, increase in salaries, and distribution of income). Though there is value in using such objective measures to look at job satisfaction, the availability of such cross-national data for a larger number of countries is limited and makes comparisons across many countries difficult, if not impossible. In the case of the second project, the authors conducted analysis without the benefit of many important individual and contextual control variables (only controlling for gender). Therefore, future research should combine the approaches of these two studies (capitalizing on the use of both self-perceived job quality indicators and objective

workplace and national indicators, combined with the use of important cross-national control variables).

Second, I build upon Handel's (2005) theoretical framework and use different global theories (Neo/Post-Fordism, world systems theory, and statist theories) to examine the international political economy of work quality and job satisfaction and use a variety of country contextual variables that are relevant to these perspectives to provide a structural economic and socio-political explanation for cross-national differences in job satisfaction and its indicators, while examining changing cross-national trends over time.

Finally, no research to date has specifically studied the possible comparative welfare state implications on job satisfaction and its determinants, particularly in a cross-national comparative analysis. I build upon the comparative welfare state literature to examine the role that comparative welfare state policy and worker safety-net provisions have in impacting domestic working conditions, and thereby cross-national difference in worker job satisfaction and its determinants.

Overview of the Format of the Dissertation

First, this dissertation provides an in-depth overview of the job quality and job satisfaction literature and relevant research, with specific emphasis on the linkages between job satisfaction and other important organizational and social variables and outcomes, while also examining the existing job quality characteristics linked to job satisfaction and what may be missing in this body of research. Second, this dissertation examines the theoretical foundations for a political economy of job quality characteristics and worker satisfaction through providing a critical synthesis and integration of the

comparative international literature surrounding postindustrialism, globalization, economic development, and the role of the state. Third, this dissertation lays out the research and statistical methodology (including development of research hypotheses, a description of the data sources to be used in this research, operationalization of variables, a review of appropriate statistical methods in cross-national research, a description of data analysis methods for this research, and limitations of the data and chosen methodology). Fourth, descriptive and regression results are presented and discussed in relation to the research hypotheses. Lastly, final discussion and conclusions are presented.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Overview of Job Quality and Job Satisfaction Research

As job quality characteristics and overall worker satisfaction are a key component to this research, I provide an overview of the job quality and worker satisfaction literature and explore why these are important issues to further study and examine. In what follows, I will start by first providing a description of the conceptualization of job satisfaction. I will then explain why it is *still* important and necessary to examine work quality characteristics and job satisfaction. Next, I will review the existing workplace and organizations literature exploring the linkages between job satisfaction and other important individual, workplace, and social outcomes. Then I will review the existing workplace and organizations literature exploring the relationship between key job quality characteristics and overall job satisfaction. Finally, I will discuss what is currently missing in this body of research (with an emphasis on the need for a cross-national comparative methodology) and suggest areas for continued emphasis in future research.

The conceptualization of job satisfaction

Job satisfaction has been conceptualized in different ways. Some have simply regarded it as the degree to which people like their jobs (Spector, 1997). Others see it as

the degree of fit between the features of a job and workers' expectations. Based on this approach, workers are relatively more satisfied with their jobs when their expectations are fulfilled or exceeded; otherwise, dissatisfaction would be the outcome of a work experience (Tutuncu & Kozak, 2007). Job satisfaction is in fact commonly explained using the person-environment fit paradigm or needs-satisfaction model. The more a job fulfils the workers' needs or values, the higher should be their job satisfaction levels (Ellickson, 2002; Kristof-Brown, 1996; Traut et al., 2000). Rather than confine the definition of job satisfaction to job features, several researchers have incorporated the work environment. They see job satisfaction as a multidimensional attitude of workers towards their jobs and work places (Clark & Oswald, 1996; Davis & Newstrom, 1999; Hamermesh, 2001). Additionally, theorists and researchers alike have often looked at job satisfaction in terms of nonmaterial (intrinsic) and nonmaterial (extrinsic) rewards (Handel 2005; Kalleberg 1977).

Empirical studies looking at the impact of various antecedents of job satisfaction tend to be divided into three: (1) those that link satisfaction with the personal characteristics of employees, such as gender, and education (Oshagbemi, 2000); (2) those that link satisfaction with elements of the work carried out by the employee, such as job characteristics, personal relations, and the work environment (Hackman & Oldman, 1980); and (3) those that link this variable with the working conditions offered by the firm to the employee, such as compensation, promotion, and job security (Darmon et al., 2003; Kotorov & Hsu, 2001). Accordingly, the three central accounts for workers' satisfaction with their jobs are the characteristics of individuals, jobs, and organizations (Glisson & Durick, 1988; Haley-Lock, 2008; Judge & Church, 2000).

Why examining work quality and job satisfaction is still important

Simply stated, job satisfaction is an “affective or emotional response towards various aspects of one’s job” (Kreitner & Kinicki 2008, p. 170). Researchers across a wide spectrum of academic disciplines have performed extensive research over the past 3 or 4 decades examining job satisfaction and its many contributing factors. Though this research has produced sometimes conflicting findings and the overall explanatory power of job satisfaction has been widely debated over that time, the question remains, why is it *still* important to study job quality characteristics and job satisfaction?

Gazioglu and Tansel (2006) note that in recent years there has been a resurgence of interest among academic researchers and practitioners alike in the analysis of various job satisfaction variables and correlates. The question is, why? The bottom line is that work continues to be a very important part of our everyday lives, possibly even more so than at any other time in recent history. In fact, many individuals spend one-half or more of their waking hours in the workplace. Additionally, the landscape of work in the U.S. and across the world has changed dramatically over the past 15-20 years in response to economic shifts and an increasingly global economy. The following is a nice summary of this perspective:

Today, work, with its attendant management hierarchies and educational requirements, organizational mergers, and company buyouts, layoffs, and downsizing, contingent work and job insecurity, is undergoing a radical transformation that threatens the structure of the job as we have come to know. The work environment in which we today spend so much of our daily lives is thus likely to present an entirely new range of work environment [conditions] (Jamison et al., 2004, p. 43).

Therefore, as work makes up such a dominant portion of our lives, and as the nature of work has been changing in recent decades, it is important to understand how workplace

characteristics impact our lives and how these characteristics impact a worker's overall job satisfaction. Thus, it is important to thoroughly revisit job satisfaction. The following section will provide a brief overview of the significant organizational outcomes related to job satisfaction.

Review of the research linking job satisfaction to other important outcomes

Over the past several decades, literally thousands of studies have examined the relationship between job satisfaction and other important organizational variables and outcomes. For example, the workplace literature has generally accepted that satisfied workers are more productive and perform at a higher level (Souza-Poza & Souza-Poza, 2000). The research has further demonstrated that low job satisfaction can lead to higher absenteeism and turnover (Vroom 1964). Rogers et al. (1994) and Fosam et al. (1998) have further demonstrated that there is a relationship in service industries between employee and customer satisfaction. Additionally, a wide body of work and health research has shown the link between job satisfaction and worker health (see Karasek 1979; Totterdell et al., 2006; Tsutsumi, 2005). Finally, Argyle (1989) and Judge and Watanabe (1993) have shown that job satisfaction is an important predictor of overall well-being.

Table 1 briefly summarizes what a vast cross-disciplinary research literature has found to be the main correlates to job satisfaction. Both positive and negative correlates are explored. Positive correlates such as overall life satisfaction, job performance, worker motivation, job involvement, organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior and negative correlates such as employee tardiness, absenteeism,

Table 1: Important Outcomes of Job Satisfaction

Variable Related with Job Satisfaction	Direction of Relationship
Life Satisfaction	Positive
Job Performance	Positive
Worker Motivation	Positive
Job Involvement	Positive
Organizational Commitment	Positive
Organizational Citizenship Behavior	Positive
Employee Tardiness	Negative
Employee Absenteeism	Negative
Withdrawal Cognitions	Negative
Employee Turnover	Negative
Worker Health	Positive
Perceived Stress	Negative

withdrawal cognitions, high turnover, and perceived stress each have broad implications for individual workers, firms, and the larger society. Each will be explored and described briefly in the following pages.

Job satisfaction and life satisfaction. Researchers have consistently found a statistically significant positive relationship between job satisfaction and overall life satisfaction (Rice, Near, & Hunt, 1980). Additionally, researchers have found that the relationship primarily flows in one direction, with job satisfaction causing life satisfaction (Rice, Hunt, & Near, 1985; Schmitt & Pulakos, 1985). Finally, researchers have found

that while there is no statistically significant gender difference in these well-being indicators, their determinants do differ by gender (Lindfors et al., 2007).

Job satisfaction and job performance. Researchers have extensively explored the linkage between job satisfaction and job performance. Though this relationship has been hotly debated over the past few decades, there is a mounting body of empirical evidence for a statistically significant relationship between these aspects of work (Harter et al., 2002; Judge et al., 2001; Schleicher et al., 2004). However, the relationship between job satisfaction and performance is more complicated than unidirectional causality suggested by earlier work looking at correlations between the two constructs (Judge et al., 2001), with mutually reinforcing causality between the two (i.e., greater job satisfaction can lead to better job performance and better job performance can lead to higher levels of job satisfaction). Finally, researchers cite the difficulty in obtaining adequate measures of actual individual performance as one of the primary reasons for not being to more clearly untangle causality in this relationship (Harter et al., 2002).

Job satisfaction, worker motivation, and job involvement. As with life satisfaction, studies have consistently found a statistically significant positive relationship between job satisfaction and motivation, with no difference in worker motivation and job satisfaction between males and females (see Eskildsen et al., 2004a; 2004b; Kinicki et al., 2002). Researchers have also found that job involvement has a moderate positive relationship with job satisfaction and that job involvement, like satisfaction, also has a significant relationship to certain job characteristics (Brown, 1996).

Job satisfaction and organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior. Building off of the early work on worker motivation, over the past few decades organizational researchers and theorists have found that managers can have a positive impact on employees' organizational commitment (Fulford, 2005) and that various aspects of job satisfaction are more strongly related to organizational commitment (Boles et al., 2007). Additionally, researchers have found that this relationship is not the same for male and females (Boles et al., 2007) and that job satisfaction and organizational commitment was the most influential with respect to levels of intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction (Markovits et al., 2007). Additionally, researchers have time and again found moderately positive, significant relationship between job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behavior (Hoffman et al., 2007).

Job satisfaction and employee tardiness, absenteeism, withdrawal cognitions, and turnover. Workplace researchers across disciplines have found that job satisfaction has a negative effect on employee tardiness and absenteeism (Dwyer & Ganster, 1991; Leigh and Lust, 1988; Ronan, 1970) and that lateness is higher for males, private sector workers and in service industries (Clark et al., 2005). Additionally, research has shown that job dissatisfaction results in employees being more likely to consider quitting (Hom & Kinicki, 2001) and that there is a significant moderate negative relationship between job satisfaction and employee turnover (Griffith et al., 2000).

Job satisfaction and perceived stress and worker health. Furthermore, many studies have found that job stress is associated with high levels of job dissatisfaction and negative mental wellbeing (e.g., Cooper et al., 1989). Additionally, job stress has been

consistently negatively related to job satisfaction and perceptions of good physical and mental health (Williams et al., 2000).

Review of the research linking key job quality characteristics to job satisfaction

As work plays an increasingly important role of our everyday lives, it is important to understand workplace characteristics that impact our lives and how these characteristics impact a worker's overall job satisfaction. The following sections provide a brief review of the research linking various key job quality characteristics to job satisfaction.

Hackman and Oldham's job characteristics model and continued developments. Smith, Kendall, and Hulin (1969) were among the first researchers to explore job satisfaction and its determinants, using the Job Descriptive Index, and found that a worker's satisfaction is closely related to various work factors, including pay, promotions, co-workers, and supervision. In 1976, organizational behavior researchers J. Richard Hackman and Greg Oldham published a seminal article entitled, "Motivation through the Design of Work: Test of a Theory," which played a central role in developing a job characteristics approach to understanding worker motivation and job satisfaction. In this article, they outlined five core job dimensions: (1) *Skill Variety*: the extent to which a job requires an individual to perform a variety of tasks that require him or her to use different skills and abilities, (2) *Task Identity*: the extent to which the job requires an individual to perform a whole or completely identifiable piece of work, (3) *Task Significance*: the extent to which the job affects the lives of other people within or outside the organization, (4) *Autonomy*: the extent to which the job enables an individual

to experience freedom, independence, and discretion in completing the job, and (5) *Feedback*: the extent to which an individual receives direct and clear information about how effectively he or she is performing the job. Since this article's publication in the mid-1970s empirical research has overwhelmingly demonstrated a strong relationship between these job characteristics and job satisfaction (see Fried & Ferris, 2006; Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006).

Following the development and subsequent extensive empirical testing of Hackman and Oldman's Job Characteristics Model, there has been an extensive expansion of this area of study in the workplace literature. This workplace literature, which spans many academic disciplines, examines the linkage between job satisfaction and a variety of other both intrinsic and extrinsic workplace characteristics and workplace conditions, such as job security, pay, worker autonomy, interesting work, etc. (see Chiu & Chen, 2005; Handel, 2005; Kalleberg, 1977; Lee, McCabe, & Graham 1983; Munoz de Bustillo Llorente & Macias, 2005; Voydanoff, 1980;). These studies have consistently found an important degree of correlation and statistically significant predictability with the relationship between the various characteristics of one's workplace and job satisfaction (see Davey, Obst, & Sheehan, 2001; Fried & Ferris, 2006; Gazioglu & Tansel, 2006; Huang & De Vliert, 2003; Judge, Bono, & Locke, 2000; Menguc & Bhuiam, 2004; Wright & Kim, 2004; Yoon & Thye, 2002). Specifically, indicators of job satisfaction and job quality include such commonly examined job characteristics variables as pay, job security, job variety, job involvement, job identity, job significance, job feedback, opportunity for advancement, career-development opportunities, perceived skill utilization, adequacy of resources, interesting work, self-actualization opportunity, job

autonomy, organizational commitment, stress, work load, physical effort, danger, management-employee relations, coworker relations, unemployment rate, and overwork (Carlson & Mellor, 2004; Chiu & Chen, 2005; Davey, Obst, & Sheehan, 2001; Handel, 2005; Hodson, 2002; Kalleberg, 1977; Menguc & Bhuiam, 2004; Munoz de Bustillo Llorente & Macias, 2005; Wright & Kim, 2004).

Common individual demographic, structural, and organizational controls.

Cross-disciplinary workplace research has shown that one's individual demographic characteristics can impact perceived job quality and worker satisfaction (e.g., Chiu & Chen, 2005; DeHart-Davis & Pandey, 2005; Gazioglu & Tansel, 2006). The most common control variables often used in these studies include gender, marital status, race/ethnicity, and age. Additionally, the structural conditions of a given organization also affect job quality and worker satisfaction. Control variables often used in these studies include variables such as organizational support, organizational control, organizational red tape, leader support, self-efficacy education, occupational prestige, job experience, job tenure, annual hours, organization size, industrial composition, employee training availability, career stage, and occupational level (Beaty, 1990; Chiu & Chen, 2005; Davey, Obst, & Sheehan, 2001; DeHart-Davis & Pandey, 2005; Gazioglu & Tansel, 2006; Hamermesh, 1999; Menguc & Bhuiam, 2004; Munoz de Bustillo Llorente & Macias, 2005; Sims & Szilagyi, 1976; Yoon & Thye, 2002).

Research methodology. In addition to providing a basis for understanding what variables are useful to examine, this literature also reveals that data collection methods in this line of research vary from quantitative to qualitative, and mixed-methods approaches, often utilizing secondary and archival data. Furthermore, the method by which various

researchers operationalize job satisfaction and its indicators varies, from a single-item survey question (DeHart-Davis & Pandey, 2005; Hamermesh, 1999; Handel, 2005; Hodson, 2002), to multi-item scales (Carlson & Mellor, 2004; Chiu & Chen, 2005).

What Is Missing in this Research?

While job satisfaction has been extensively studied for decades, the vast majority of job satisfaction studies only examine job quality, job satisfaction, and the outcomes of job satisfaction in one country or region at a time. The research that has looked at differences around the world has primarily examined job satisfaction from a cross-cultural perspective. Virtually no research has examined country differences in job quality and job satisfaction from a macro cross-national/global perspective (including by taking into account such important country-specific contextual variables as various social conditions, variation across countries in human capital, and various national-level economic and political conditions that might bear up job satisfaction). Furthermore, no research has examined the macro-sociological reasons behind the cross-national differences in significant job quality determinants of job satisfaction and the cross-national differences in levels of job satisfaction and how that has changed over the past few decades.

But why would a macro cross-national comparative methodology be necessary for the analysis of a construct as seemingly micro in nature as job satisfaction? What is it that a cross-national comparative methodology can offer that previous individual-level, or even organizational-level examinations have failed to offer? Important country effects have

been found in much cross-national comparative research, including the following diverse subject areas:

- Understanding sector bias and sector dualism (Rohrbach, 2009)
- Suicide rates (Stockard & O'Brien, 2006)
- Education and youth integration into labor markets (Müller, 2005)
- Global capitalism (Shandra, Ross, & London, 2003)
- Impact of religion on contemporary society (Halman, Pettersson, & Verweij, 1999)
- Women's attitudes towards housework (Kunovich & Kunovich, 2008)
- Socioeconomic status and educational performance (Clifton, 1983)
- Economic inequality (Isaac, 1981)

In each of these (and countless other) cross-national studies, researchers have been able to leverage the benefits of a cross-national comparative methodology to unlock often surprising independent and interactive effects with country-level conditions and other factors to further develop relevant theoretical perspectives and empirical models (see Bacharach, 1989; Whetten, 1989).

There are many benefits and potential pitfalls of cross-national research. Cross-national comparisons have a crucial role to play in theory-development and can lead to fresh perspectives and new insights and deeper understanding of issues of concern in different countries, potentially leading to new research directions for which researchers were previously unaware (see Bacharach, 1989; Whetten, 1989). Such a macro analysis requires researchers to examine the entire social context surrounding a particular issue or phenomenon and can help them to identify important interactive and independent factors. Additionally, the method of differences allows cross-national researchers to illuminate similarities and differences over time and space between countries with varying contextual conditions, to better tease directions of causality in different empirical analyses. Finally, cross-national research can lead to a greater level of generalizability of

important social theories, as researchers can test the structural and contextual conditions in which particular theories do and do not apply (for further description of these key points, see Hantrais & Mangen, 1996).

While there are many potential benefits to cross-national research, there are also weaknesses and even risks in utilizing this type of comparative methodology. One major potential weakness of cross-national research is that it tends to underestimate the impact of cultural differences. Additionally, the definitions of country or society can often be problematic, as there are often substantial shifts in nation-states over time in terms of their exact boundaries and the populations encompassed. Once more, data availability and access, as well as the consistency in data collection may vary across countries and can often lead to gaps in coverage (Hantrais & Mangen, 1996). Finally, and possibly the most important, a major risk of cross-national analysis stems from the temptation to seek solutions to national-level problems and issues in the experience of other countries in a way that ignores the fact that social, political, and economic environment is often not exportable (see Klein, 1991). However, these challenges can be overcome, or at least managed, and many researchers have found helpful solutions to overcoming the barriers to effective cross-national comparisons (Brockner, 2003; Hantrais & Mangen, 1996; Klein, 1991; Kunovich & Kunovich, 2008).

While utilizing a comparative cross-national multilevel research methodology, this project can make a variety of unique conceptual contributions to the job satisfaction and work quality literature by being the first to combine societal and individual level indicators of worker satisfaction, thereby accounting for both between- and within-country differences in work attitudes and behaviors, providing greater clarity in

accounting for unexpected null effects of country, providing insight into the basic theoretical processes underlying the relationships between people's countries and their work attitudes and behaviors.

The International Political Economy of Job Quality and Worker Satisfaction

There are various explanations for why and how job satisfaction and its work determinants can differ cross-nationally, based on national contextual factors. These include the following sets of macroglobal theories, each of which will be summarized with an emphasis on the connection between each theory and the nature of the work experience: (1) Post/Neo-Fordist theories, (2) World Systems theories, and (3) Statist theories, including theories of the comparative welfare state.

Post/neo-Fordism

One theoretical perspective that can provide some explanations for why and how job satisfaction and its work determinants can differ cross-nationally is the Post/Neo-Fordist paradigm (Amin, 1994; Graham, 1993; Harrison, 1994; Hirst & Zeitlin, 1991; Mishel et al., 2001; Priore & Sabel, 1984). This paradigm is built from the early scientific management innovations of Frederick Winslow Taylor and the application of those principles to the assembly line method of production by Henry Ford, which was characterized by the following: (1) Assembly and production in large-scale factories, with sequential synchronization of tasks, (2) Worker organization based on a large, mostly unskilled labor force, (3) Standardized production (using machinery) in large

volume and products designed for easy assembly, and (4) Tight management control of the labor process (see Hodkinson, 1997).

The promise of massive increases in productivity led to the following of Ford's model of management all over the world (Amin, 1994; Hodkinson, 1997). Fordism proved particularly suitable to manufacturing in a mass consumption economy, where it required only occasional innovation of new products and used machines that only made specific goods (Amin, 1994; Hodkinson, 1997). However, the human costs were high, with poor working conditions and increased worker alienation, leading to labor problems such as high turnover, poor labor discipline, and falling productivity (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982; Vroom, 1964).

Though the Fordist influence was felt across the U.S. economy and other industrialized capitalist nations, particularly as part of the capitalist boom following World War II (Amin, 1994; Piore & Sabel, 1984), as many highly industrialized economies began to experience slow economic growth, rising inflation, and growing unemployment in the following decades, by the early 1970s, the mass markets that stabilized the Fordist system started to break-up (Hardt & Negri, 2000). Piore and Sabel (1984) claim that by the 1970s, consumer society had reached its limits, causing a world-wide economic crisis and fundamental shift in trade cycles, due in part to huge costs associated with Fordist production methods and the exhaustion of the efficiency gains that had made the Fordist production system successful. Furthermore, this saturation of the mass markets for standardized goods then gave way to a more fragmented and customized pattern of demand, based on the fast-changing consumer tastes and trends (Piore & Sabel, 1984). Additional reasons for a shift include the introduction of new

technology (particularly computers), internationalization, and the overall shift from a Keynesian Welfare state to a Schumpetrian workfare state (see Amin, 1994; Piore & Sabel, 1984). In such a shifting economic global economic climate, the Fordist approach began to fade in popularity and give way to Post-Fordism and Neo-Fordism (Baca, 2004).

Post-Fordism is typified by the word ‘flexibility’, in which labor and resources are strategically used to (1) enable production systems to be responsive to market changes and cycles, and (2) encourage workers to develop new skills in order to be able to operate across a range of tasks. It emphasizes a deindustrialization in the economy, i.e., a shift from the compartmentalization of labor characterized in classical Fordism, to greater employee involvement and the use of self-managed work teams and other such practices (Hirst & Zeitlin, 1991; Priore & Sabel, 1984). The Post-Fordist management paradigm and resulting workplace outcomes are most closely linked with service-sector businesses, and Post-Fordists argue that the overall intrinsic quality of jobs for most workers in the Western industrialized world has increased in the last 20 years, with a shift to increased job skill requirements, task variety, and job autonomy, resulting in greater job enrichment and workplace cooperation (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982; Hirst & Zeitlin, 1991).

The other off-shoot of traditional Fordism is the Neo-Fordist framework, which maintains the basic principles of the traditional firm held by Fordism. It, however, accentuates other principles, such as inequality between management and labor, and combines the logic of mass production and mass consumption with more flexible production, distribution, and marketing systems (Graham, 1993; Harrison, 1994; Mishel et al., 2001). Scholars have pointed out that the increased frequency of mass layoffs, and

overseas outsourcing, and the use of contingent employment have diminished workers' overall job security, while workloads have continued to increase without a commensurate rise in pay (Handel, 2005; Harrison, 1994). The Neo-Fordist management paradigm and resulting workplace outcomes are most closely linked with industrial-sector businesses, and Neo-Fordists argue that the overall extrinsic quality of jobs for most workers in the Western industrialized world has declined in the last 20 years (Handel, 2005; Harrison, 1994).

Both Post and Neo-Fordist perspectives are important to the cross-national examination of job quality characteristics and job satisfaction, because they provide one important avenue for understanding why and how job satisfaction and its work determinants can differ cross-nationally, based on national contextual factors. The job quality characteristics typified by nonindustrial, service oriented jobs of the Post-Fordist perspective suggest that in national economies with a greater level of service sector domination, workers will be more greatly motivated and satisfied by intrinsic workplace characteristics and conditions. On the other hand, the job quality characteristics typified by the predominantly industrial, production-oriented jobs of the Neo-Fordist perspective suggest that in national economies with larger industrial sectors relative to overall service sector domination, workers will be more greatly motivated and satisfied by extrinsic workplace characteristics and conditions. Thus, Post and Neo-Fordist perspectives provide an important conceptual tool in the cross-national examination of job quality characteristics and job satisfaction.

World systems perspective

Another theoretical perspective that can provide some explanations for why and how job satisfaction and its work determinants can differ cross-nationally—based on national contextual factors—is world systems theory. World-Systems theory is actually more of an approach to macrosocial analysis than it is one theory. This perspective as a whole asserts that there is (and has been for some 500 years), a single dominant world economy, the capitalist world system. Moreover, the world-system perspective argues that this system entails unequal exchange between producers in the core countries and those in the periphery countries of the world system (Wallerstein, 2000; 1974). Additionally, key to world systems theory is the inclusion of a third category of countries, those of the semiperiphery, which acts as a bridge between the periphery and the core, as both a region that is economically exploited and one that is simultaneously the exploiter, providing political stability for the world system by obscuring the stark core / periphery relation, giving the illusion of stages of development through which every country could proceed (Wallerstein, 2000; 1974). World-systems researchers have argued that it is the nature of class power and class relations in and between these nations that in turn influences the economic growth trajectories and overall income distribution patterns across countries (e.g., Acemoglu, 2002; Brenner, 1976).

In contrast to Wallerstein and traditional world systems theorists, some researchers have taken a more statist approach to examining the world economic system, arguing that there is a long-term relationship between world economic and world political structures and that there has historically been an ebb and flow of world powers and leading economic sectors (Arrighi, 1995; Modelski, 1978; Modelski & Thompson, 1995).

Still others (e.g., Sklair, 1991) have provided a different global sociological perspective that gets away from the “state-centric” approaches of other theories and relies more on transnational and global forces and institutions, focusing on transnational practices and looks at the culture-ideology of capitalism and transnational corporate (TNC) investment.

Among world-systems researchers, Christopher Chase-Dunn has most extensively examined the relationship between the global class structure, the core/periphery hierarchy, and the corresponding relation to working conditions (see Chase-Dunn, 1989). As part of the global class structure, he has looked at levels of economic inequality (Bornschieer et al., 1978; Chase-Dunn, 1989), differing modes of production within nations in the core/periphery hierarchy (Chase-Dunn, 1982; 1989; Chase-Dunn & Hall, 1992), and the degree to which labor is coerced in different nations within the economic world system (Chase-Dunn, 1982; 1989), concluding that overall working conditions of countries in the periphery are worse than those of countries in the core (Chase-Dunn, 1989; Chase-Dunn & Hall, 1992). Chase-Dunn has shown that a key element to understanding cross-national differences in working conditions relates to the way coercive labor control mechanisms extract labor surplus from periphery and semiperiphery nations, ultimately accumulating in the core (Chase-Dunn, 1989).

Chase-Dunn adds to the perspective of Marx, namely that the capitalist system is built upon profit seeking and the extraction of surplus value from workers; the difference between the true value of the work they do and the market value of the commodities/services workers produce (see Chase-Dunn, 1982; 1989). However, the extraction of surplus on a world economic level is much more complex than what Marx discussed; a more complete account of the process must take into account the

complicated connections between political action and socio-economic structures, while examining "... the world-system position of states and the policies, organizational forms, and regime structures of those states" (Chase-Dunn, 1982; p. 109). From Chase-Dunn's perspective, workers in the periphery are even more exploited than the typical worker in the core, via the different state characteristics (e.g., less democratized, more centralized, and more authoritarian) and forms of labor control mechanisms/coercive capacity/extractive capacity (e.g., state control over various key production resources, military strength, government consumption as a percentage of GDP, level of employment rigidity, etc.) in place in different states and regions of the world, ultimately resulting in a global division of labor and global differences in working conditions (Chase-Dunn, 1982; 1989; Chase-Dunn & Hall, 1992).

Furthermore, the nature of this exploiter/exploited relationship between nations in the world system hierarchy has led to many inequalities in working conditions between countries in the periphery, semiperiphery, and core, where extrinsic rewards and working conditions have been reported to be worse in the periphery and semiperiphery compared to those in the core nations, along with experiencing overall greater levels of economic instability than countries in the core (Benner, 2002; Dowling & Welch, 2008; Lee, 1997; Mendenhall et al., 2007; Munck, 2002; Perrucci & Perrucci, 2007; Sweet & Meiksins, 2008;). For example, researchers have found much evidence for poor extrinsic working conditions in areas such as the following: child labor (Anderson, 2000; Esbenshade, 2004), forced/coerced labor (Kohli, 2004; Swinnerton & Schoepfle, 1994), poor health and physical safety conditions (Flanagan, 2006; Heymann, 2003), lack of appropriate/reasonable payment for work performed (Swinnerton, & Schoepfle, 1994;

Vallas et al., 2008;), rampant discrimination towards women and minorities (Munck, 2002; Vallas et al., 2008), long working hours (Gregory, 2007; Lee, 1997), with even worse conditions in the prominent informal economies in these nations (Gregory, 2007).

The world systems perspective is important to the cross-national examination of job quality characteristics and job satisfaction, because it provides an important alternative avenue for understanding the reasons behind cross-national differences in national contextual factors that impact job satisfaction and its determinants. Extrinsic rewards and working conditions have been reported to be worse in the periphery and semiperiphery compared to those in the core nations, along with overall greater levels of economic instability than countries in the core (Benner, 2002; Chase-Dunn, 1989; Dowling & Welch, 2008; Lee, 1997; Mendenhall et al., 2007; Munck, 2002; Perrucci & Perrucci, 2007; Sweet & Meiksins, 2008). Based on the different needs fulfillment models (that put first-level importance on basic “existence” needs) of Maslow, Alderfer, and Herzberg (see Alderfer, 1972; Herzberg et al., 1959; Maslow, 1943), this would lead to the logical conclusion that individual workers in nations with greater economic instability and relatively worse working conditions would be more greatly motivated and satisfied by extrinsic workplace factors. Furthermore, for countries that are in the core of the economic world system, where overall economic stability is greater and extrinsic workplace rewards and conditions are relatively better, workers’ motivation and satisfaction would move beyond basic extrinsic “existence” needs and move towards intrinsic needs of personal fulfillment and self-actualization. Thus, the world systems perspective provides another important conceptual tool in the cross-national examination of job quality characteristics and job satisfaction.

Statist theories

Another theoretical perspective that can provide some explanations for why and how job satisfaction and its work determinants can differ cross-nationally—based on national contextual factors—is the statist perspective or international political economy perspective. While many theorists have argued for a global world system (e.g., Wallerstein, 2000; 1974), there is a growing body of scholarship that has shown a renewed interest in exploring the role of the state in the global economy (e.g., Evans, 1994; Evans, 1995; Evans et al., 1985; Gilpin, 2001; Hirschman, 1980; Kohli, 2004; Mann, 1993; Meyer et al., 1997; Tilly, 1990), while others argue that states are not the only actors in the international political economy, but they are the most important actors (e.g., Gilpin, 2001).

There are many aspects of the state that prior cross-national research has take into account. In brief summary, these aspects include understanding state regime type and level of democratization (Evans, 1994, 1995; Kohli, 2004; Moore, 1966; Polanyi, 1944), understanding the effect of colonization on potential existing and future domestic economy (Kohli, 2004), issues surrounding the level of state political power and industrialization (Evans, Rueschemeyer, & Skocpol, 1985; Mann, 1993), state military buildup and power (Evans, Rueschemeyer, & Skocpol, 1985; Tilly, 1990), the relative embeddedness and autonomy of the state with business interests (Evans, 1995; Evans, Rueschemeyer, & Skocpol, 1985), the balance of state regulation with the sharing of state power with social groups (Polanyi, 1944; Moore, 1966), level state bureaucratic apparatus and decentralization (Evans, Rueschemeyer, & Skocpol, 1985), the state's role in the establishing, building, and sustaining of markets (Fligstein & Merand, 2002; Kohli,

2004), and the relative level of welfare state work safety-net provision (Epsing-Andersen, 1990; Hicks & Swank, 1984; Huber & Stephens, 2001; Korpi, 1983, Stephens, 1979a, Stephens, 1979b). While each of the areas above have been shown to be important factors in examining the role of the state in cross-national research, this research will specifically examine the state's role in establishing, building, and sustaining markets (see further discussion in following section), as well as welfare state work safety-net provisions and how each relates to cross-national differences in domestic working conditions.

Kohli's typology

Among the many statist researchers, Kohli (2004) examined patterns of state construction and state intervention aimed at promoting industrialization and argues that the type of state involvement in society directly impacts development trajectory of that society, and thus the nature of working conditions within that society. Furthermore, Kohli developed a typology to examine the nature of different state regime "ideal types" in this relationship: (1) neopatrimonial states, (2) cohesive-capitalist states, and (3) fragmented-multiclass states. (Neopatrimonial states and cohesive-capitalist states are on two ends of the state authority spectrum, with fragmented-multiclass states falling in the middle.) Cohesive-capitalist states help to facilitate the availability of capital, labor, technology, and entrepreneurship, while also "enabling private investors to have a ready supply of cheap, 'flexible,' and disciplined labor" (Kohli, 2004, p. 13). In contrast, in "instead of strengthening the private sector, [neopatrimonial states] have appropriated scarce economic resources and diverted them everywhere but towards productive

investment” (p. 15). Additionally, cohesive-capitalist states have a lot more “power to define and pursue their goals than neopatrimonial states, with fragmented-multiclass states falling somewhere in between” and the two key determinants of the variation in state power are “organizational characteristics of state institutions... and the manner in which states craft their relations with social classes, especially the producer classes” (p. 21). In fragmented-multiclass states, power is not highly concentrated and leaders are generally committed to a broad set of goals and a variety of interest groups within the states make their demands known to the ruling elite. Kohli’s typology will be useful in this research as it will allow me to connect variation in the nature of the state to variation in working conditions. Furthermore, his typology provides the means for making country comparisons in relation to other state-level political and economic conditions that in turn impact working conditions and the experience of workers in the workplace.

Welfare state and worker safety-net provisions

There are three broad theoretical schools that have examined the nature of welfare state development over the past several decades: (1) the “logical industrialism,” (2) “state-centric,” and (3) “political class struggle” approaches. The “logic of industrialism” school has argued that a focus on economic development is of greatest importance and that growth of the welfare state and global differences in the extent of welfare states can be understood as merely a byproduct of a broader economic development context and other related demographic and social organizational consequences (see Pampel & Williamson, 1989; Wilensky, 1975). The “state-centric” school has focused on issues surrounding the policy making of relatively socially autonomous bureaucrats and the

impacts these policies (both old and new) have on the state's capacity to implement welfare programs (see Helco, 1974; Skocpol, 1988; Weir et al., 1988). The "political class struggle" school has focused on the distribution of organizational power between leftist political influences (e.g., labor organizations and leftist political parties) and right-wing political forces as the key determinant of the cross-national variations in welfare state size and impact over time (see Esping-Andersen, 1990; Hicks & Swank, 1984; Korpi, 1983, Stephens, 1979). In addition to these three theoretical schools, there are a couple of other approaches that have also examined cross-national differences in aggregate size of welfare states that do not neatly fall into any of the three theoretical schools briefly outlined above: (1) literature that examines economic openness and domestic vulnerability, which can lead to the establishment of state-run safety nets (see Katzenstein, 1985), and (2) literature that specifically examines corporatist institutions that are conducive to welfare state growth (see Katzenstein, 1985; Stephens, 1979).

In his seminal book "The Three Worlds of Welfare Capitalism," Esping-Anderson (1990) built upon the existing welfare state literature and specifically identified three theoretical typologies for welfare regimes and social policy in advanced capitalist nations, as they apply to the concept of "commodification of labor": (1) the liberal approach to social policy and welfare (liberal welfare regimes—maximization of the free market with little-to-no state intervention), (2) the conservative approach to social policy and welfare (corporatist/statist regimes—state welfare intervention is both minimal, but also does not fail to intervene to protect those who are unable to succeed in the market place through no fault of their own), and (3) social democratic approach to social policy and welfare

(social democratic regimes— supports full employment and promotes equality, including the provision of a safety net through universal and comprehensive welfare policies).

Following up on Esping-Anderson's (1990) seminal work, Huber and Stephens (2001) further examined and explained the development, expansion, adaptation, and entrenchment of welfare states in advanced capitalist democracies over the second half of the 20th century. They identified three constellations/clusters of power that interact to determine the type of welfare regime that any given country adopts at a given time in its trajectory: (1) class power balance, which is the focus of the power resources approach to the variations in welfare state development, (2) the structure of the state and of the state-society relations, and (3) complex relations in the international economy and system of states. They found that partisan politics is the most important variable in the development of welfare state outcomes and that the nature of the production regimes in which welfare states are embedded is key to impacting options and choice.

Finally, the vast literature examining the development of the welfare state utilizes many variables that could be useful in uncovering additional welfare state-related reasons behind cross-national differences in working conditions and worker satisfaction. These include such measures as government revenue as a percentage of GDP, government expenditures as a percentage of GDP, social security benefit expenditure as a percentage of GDP, social security transfers as a percentage of GDP, public health expenditure as a percentage of total health expenditure, union density, unemployment rate, and civilian government employment as a percentage of working-age population, among many other possibilities (see Esping-Andersen, 1990; Huber & Stephens, 2001). Such common measures of welfare state size and reach could help to better understand cross-national

differences in welfare security measures and policy that impact working conditions and worker attitudes about their job. For example, in a nation that has a comparatively higher percentage of unionization, where the workers' jobs are more securely protected, one would suppose that such a common job satisfaction determinant as job security would have less saliency to worker satisfaction in that country. However, if another country does not have such job security provisions in place, job security may play a more important role in worker satisfaction in that country. The same would apply to other various state redistributive and safety-net outcomes.

Kohli's typology of state directed development regime types and the various welfare state provisions and worker safety-net characteristics are country-level factors that shape the broad domestic context for workplace conditions that can impact workers' satisfaction levels and its determinants. Extrinsic rewards and working conditions have been reported to be worse in states Kohli (2004) classifies as cohesive-capitalist and neopatrimonial in nature, as compared to those same conditions in fragmented multiclass states, while intrinsic workplace characteristics and workplace relations have been shown to be more salient towards worker satisfaction and work quality factors for countries with less oppressive fragmented multiclass regimes (Benner, 2002; Dowling & Welch, 2008; Kohli, 2004; Lee, 1997; Mendenhall et al., 2007; Munck, 2002; Perrucci & Perrucci, 2007; Sweet & Meiksins, 2008). Additionally, workers in countries with a relatively greater level of welfare state safety net provisions experience less concern over extrinsic work rewards and conditions than those without such provisions (Epsing-Andersen, 1990; Hall, 1999; Hall & Soskice, 2001; Huber & Stephens, 2001; Pampel & Williamson, 1989; Scruggs & Allan, 2006; Skocpol, 1988; Weir et al., 1988). For example, Kohli

(2004) found that coercive capitalist states of South Korea repressed workers with a nearly warlike mobilization of labor to create a highly productive workforce (resulting in very poor working conditions related to workplace safety and health, wages, working hours, and areas of job enlargement and empowerment) , whereas the fragmented multiclass state of India encouraged a highly politicized labor force that never amounted to a cohesive capitalist force (resulting in greater workplace flexibility for workers, and better overall working conditions). Additionally, Epsing-Anderson (1990) and Huber and Stephens (2001), among others, have found that in countries with a greater level of welfare state safety net provisions, workers had fewer concerns regarding such workplace issues as long working hours and dangerous working conditions, job security, pay, and benefits.

The statist perspective is important to the cross-national examination of job quality characteristics and job satisfaction because it provides yet another important alternative avenue for understanding the reasons behind cross-national differences in national contextual factors that impact job satisfaction and its determinants. Extrinsic rewards and working conditions have been reported to be worse in states Kohli (2004) classifies as cohesive-capitalist and neopatrimonial in nature, as compared to those same conditions in fragmented multiclass states (Benner, 2002; Dowling & Welch, 2008; Kohli, 2004; Munck, 2002; Perrucci & Perrucci, 2007; Sweet & Meiksins, 2008), and workers in countries with a relatively greater level of welfare state safety net provisions experience less concern over extrinsic work rewards and conditions than those without such provisions (Epsing-Andersen, 1990; Hall & Soskice, 2001; Huber & Stephens, 2001; Scruggs & Allan, 2006). Based on the different needs fulfillment models (that put

first-level importance on basic “existence” needs) of Maslow, Alderfer, and Herzberg (see Alderfer, 1972; Herzberg et al., 1959; Maslow, 1943), this would lead to the logical conclusion that workers in cohesive-capitalist and neopatrimonial states with relatively worse working conditions would be more greatly motivated and satisfied by extrinsic workplace factors, while workers in fragmented multiclass states with better working conditions would be better able to move beyond the various extrinsic “existence” needs and move toward the more “self-actualization” and “personal fulfillment” intrinsic needs. Thus, the statist perspective provides yet another important conceptual tool in the cross-national examination of job quality characteristics and job satisfaction.

Theoretical Framework: Combining Theories of Global Development, Work Quality, and Job Satisfaction

Next, it is important to understand how all of the various country-contextual theoretical perspectives reviewed in the prior section fit together to inform the procedures and methods that will be used to examine the research questions and test the hypotheses previously stated.

Figure 1 depicts a combination of the theories of global economy, the role of the state, national sectoral composition and overall economic development. Along the left and bottom axis, we see the connection between level of industrialization and economic development, utilizing the periphery, semiperiphery, and core categorizations of dependency and world systems theories. On the right-hand side, we see the various roles of the state and their relationships to level of development. On the top, we see the dominant sector of a nation’s economy, as related to previous discussion about Post/Neo-

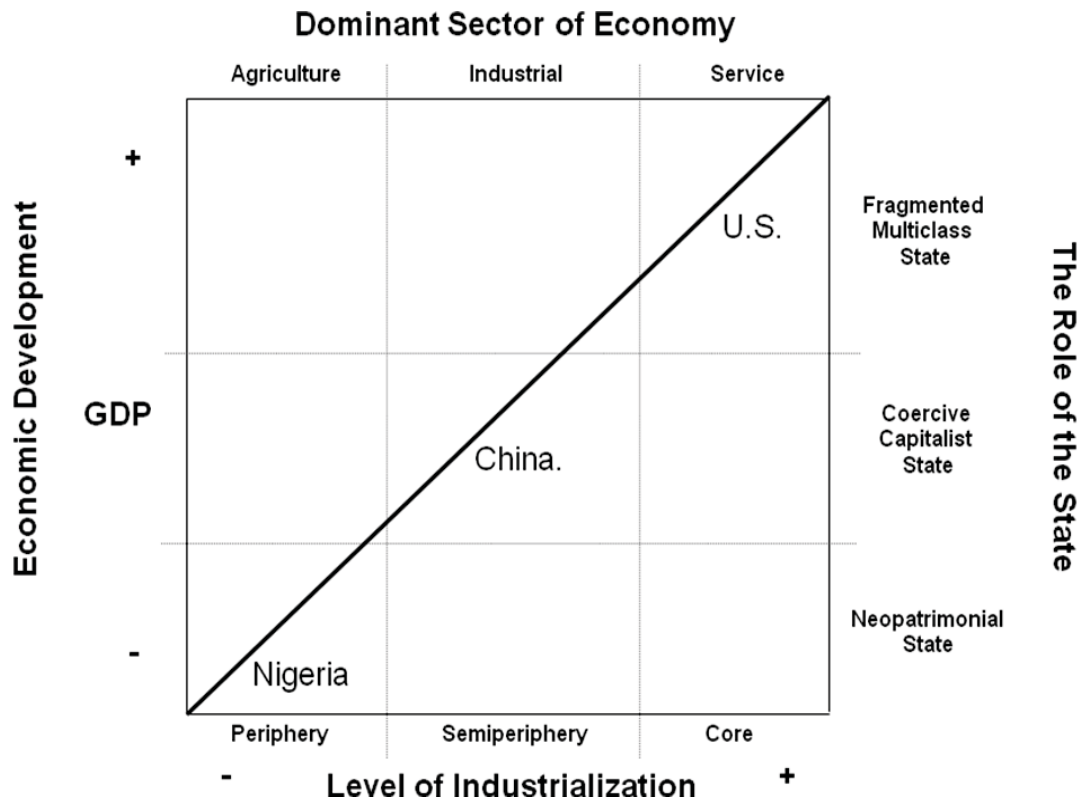


Figure 1:
Economic Development, Industrialization, Sectoral Composition, and the Role of the State

Fordist theories. Within the diagram itself, I have tentatively placed three nations for comparative example purposes. Thus, we see that China is a rapidly industrializing nation, experiencing swift economic development. Additionally we see that its dominant economic sector is the industrial sector, and it could be described as a cohesive-capitalist state. I will further argue that each of these elements plays an important role in determining the overall job quality and worker satisfaction within each nation.

Figure 2 depicts the overall theoretical model of the influences on job quality and overall job satisfaction. In addition to the various intrinsic and extrinsic factors examined in most satisfaction research, this model also includes commonly omitted factors,

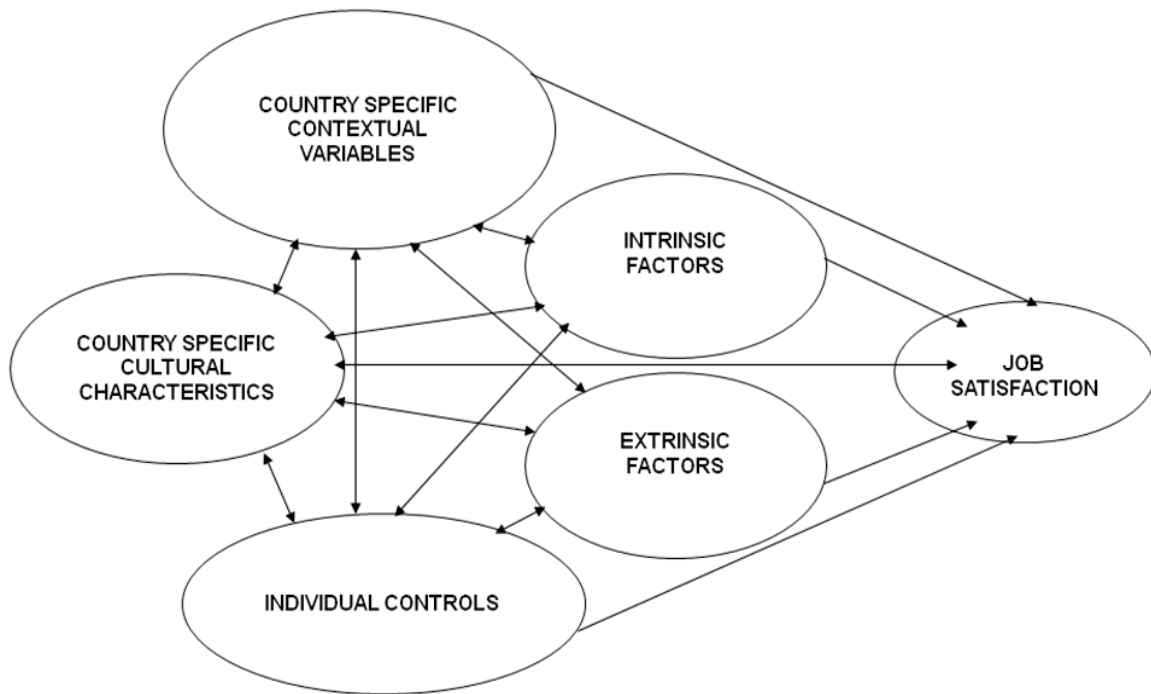


Figure 2:
Factors Impacting Work Characteristics and Job Satisfaction

including country-specific cultural characteristics, and most importantly for the scope of this current research endeavor, country-specific contextual variables, including various social, human capital, national-level economic, and welfare variables. I argue that each of these macrolevel conditions set the stage for job quality conditions and worker satisfaction within a given nation. Furthermore, as a result of differing macrolevel and differing job quality conditions, countries will have a difference in intrinsic and extrinsic work quality factors and their saliency to perceived satisfaction.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Hypotheses

The following section will outline the main hypotheses of this research, including: (1) international differences in job satisfaction, (2) Job satisfaction and Post/Neo-Fordist theories, (3) Job satisfaction and world systems theory, (4) Job satisfaction and state directed development, and (5) Job satisfaction and the comparative welfare state.

International differences in job satisfaction and its determinants

There is also the likelihood that the national work context can impact on the workplace and the nature of work, which can in turn affect job satisfaction. Therefore, the levels of job satisfaction and its determinants of the respondents from the 32 countries are expected to differ cross-nationally, resulting in the following hypothesis:

H1a: There are statistically significant cross-national differences in the levels of job satisfaction across countries.

H1a: There are statistically significant cross-national differences in the determinants of job satisfaction across countries.

Job satisfaction and Post/Neo-Fordist theories

There are various explanations for why and how job satisfaction and its work determinants can differ cross-nationally, based on national contextual factors. One of these explanations is embodied in Post-Fordist theory, which emphasizes a deindustrialization in the economy and is characterized by a shift from the compartmentalization of labor characterized in classical Fordist model, to greater employee involvement and the use of self-managed work teams and other such practices (Hirst & Zeitlin, 1991; Priore & Sabel, 1984). The Post-Fordist management paradigm and resulting workplace outcomes are most closely linked with service-sector businesses, and Post-Fordists argue that the overall intrinsic quality of jobs for most workers in the Western industrialized world has increased in the last 20 years, with a shift to increased job skill requirements, task variety, and job autonomy, resulting in greater job enrichment and workplace cooperation (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982; Hirst & Zeitlin, 1991).

There is also the Neo-Fordist framework, which maintains the basic principles of the traditional firm held by Fordism, yet combines the logic of mass production and mass consumption with more flexible production, distribution, and marketing systems (Graham, 1993; Harrison, 1994; Mishel et al., 2001). The Neo-Fordist management paradigm and resulting workplace outcomes are most closely linked with industrial-sector businesses, and Neo-Fordists argue that the overall extrinsic quality of jobs for most workers in the Western industrialized world has declined in the last 20 years (Handel, 2005; Harrison, 1994). Thus, these frameworks lead to the following two-part hypothesis:

H2a: In countries with more dominant service sector economies, intrinsic work characteristics and work relationships will be most salient to workers and provide the most predictability in overall perceived job satisfaction.

H2b: In countries with less dominant service sector economies (larger industrial sector), extrinsic work characteristics will be most salient to workers and provide the most predictability in overall perceived job satisfaction.

Job satisfaction and world systems theory

Another theory that provides some explanations for why and how job satisfaction and its work determinants can differ cross-nationally is world-system theory, which argues that there is a center of wealthy states and a periphery of poor, underdeveloped states, and resources are extracted from the periphery and flow towards the states (through the semiperiphery nations) at the centre of the world system in order to sustain the core's economic growth and wealth (Acemoglu, 2002; Modelski & Thompson, 1995; Wallerstein, 2000; 1974). Extrinsic rewards and working conditions have been reported to be worse in the periphery and semiperiphery compared to those in the core nations, along with experiencing overall greater levels of economic instability than countries in the core (Benner, 2002; Dowling & Welch, 2008; Lee, 1997; Mendenhall et al., 2007; Munck, 2002; Perrucci & Perrucci, 2007; Sweet & Meiksins, 2008), and based on the different needs fulfillment models (that put first level importance on basic "existence" needs) of Maslow, Alderfer, and Herzberg (see Alderfer, 1972; Herzberg et al., 1959; Maslow, 1943), this would lead to the logical conclusion that workers in nations with greater economic instability and relatively worse working conditions would be more

greatly motivated and satisfied by extrinsic workplace factors. This results in the following two hypotheses:

H3: Workers in the semiperiphery of the economic world system will experience worse overall job quality and lower perceived job satisfaction than workers in the core.

H4a: For nations in the semiperiphery of the economic world system, extrinsic work rewards and other workplace conditions will be most salient to workers and will have a larger influence on perceived job satisfaction than intrinsic qualities of the jobs.

H4b: For nations in the core of the economic world system, intrinsic rewards and workplace relations will be more salient to workers and will be more closely related to overall perceived job satisfaction than extrinsic characteristics of the job.

Job satisfaction and state directed development

Recently, increasing numbers of scholars have shown a renewed interest in exploring the role of the state as an autonomous actor within a globalized economy, directly influencing country-level contextual business related facets. Additionally, statist researchers have examined the level of state power and industrialization, the relative level of state embeddedness and autonomy with business interests, the level of bureaucratization, how states build and sustain markets, and state welfare provisions that impact the workplace (Gilpin, 2001; Kohli, 2004; Meyer et al., 1997). These factors shape the broad domestic context for workplace conditions that can impact workers'

satisfaction levels and the determinants. Furthermore extrinsic rewards and working conditions have been reported to be worse in states Kohli (2004) classifies as cohesive-capitalist and neopatrimonial in nature, as compared to those same conditions in fragmented multiclass states (Benner, 2002; Munck, 2002; Dowling & Welch, 2008; Kohli, 2004; Perrucci & Perrucci, 2007; Sweet & Meiksins, 2008). As was the case with the world systems argument above, based on the different needs fulfillment models of Maslow, Alderfer, and Herzberg (see Alderfer, 1972; Herzberg et al., 1959; Maslow, 1943), this would lead to the logical conclusion that workers in cohesive-capitalist and neopatrimonial states with relatively worse working conditions would be more greatly motivated and satisfied by extrinsic workplace factors, while workers in fragmented multiclass states with better working conditions would be better able to move beyond the various extrinsic “existence” needs and move toward the more “self-actualization” and “personal fulfillment” intrinsic needs. Thus, the next two hypotheses, following Kohli’s typology, are as follows:

- H5: Workers in cohesive-capitalist states will experience worse overall job quality and perceived job satisfaction than workers in fragmented multi-class states.
- H6a: Job satisfaction is more closely linked to extrinsic workplace rewards and other workplace conditions for workers in cohesive-capitalist states.
- H6b: Job satisfaction is more closely linked to intrinsic workplace rewards and workplace relationships for workers in fragmented multi-class states.

Job satisfaction and the comparative welfare state

Finally, there has been a great deal of academic work from a variety of theoretical schools over the past several decades that have examined the nature and role of the welfare state in the global economy (e.g., Epsing-Andersen, 1985; Helco, 1974; Hicks & Swank, 1984; Korpi, 1983; Pampel & Williamson, 1989; Skocpol, 1988; Stephens, 1979; Weir et al., 1988; Wilensky, 1975) and the relationship between varieties of capitalism/production regimes and welfare state regimes (Hall & Soskice, 2001; Huber & Stephens, 2001; Kitschelt et al. 1999; Scruggs & Allan, 2006). The various measures of welfare state size and reach utilized in these studies also help to better understand cross-national differences in welfare security measures and policy that impact working conditions and workers' attitudes about their job, where workers in countries with a relatively greater level of welfare state safety net provisions experience less concern over extrinsic work rewards and conditions than those without such provisions (Epsing-Andersen, 1990; Hall & Soskice, 2001; Huber & Stephens, 2001; Scruggs & Allan, 2006). Thus, the final two hypotheses are as follows:

H7a: In countries with greater levels of welfare state safety net provisions, intrinsic work characteristics and work relationships will be most salient to workers and provide the most predictability in overall perceived job satisfaction.

H7b: In countries with lower levels of welfare state safety net provisions, extrinsic workplace characteristics will be most salient to workers and provide the most predictability in overall perceived job satisfaction.

Description of the Data to be Used in this Research

I use nonpanel longitudinal data from the International Social Survey Program (ISSP: Work Orientations modules I, II, and III: 1989, 1997, 2005—various survey questions on job characteristics and job quality). The International Social Survey Program Work Orientations modules utilized a multistage stratified probability sample to collect the data for each of the various countries with a variety of eligible participants in each country's target population.¹ The Work Orientations module focuses on the areas of general attitudes toward work and leisure, work organization, and work content.² Variables of interest in the data collected by the International Social Survey Program are single-item indicators (i.e., with a single survey question for job satisfaction, interesting work, job autonomy, workplace relations, etc., on a Likert scale). For the purposes of this study, the units of analysis start with individuals within the separate sovereign nations. In addition to examining one large sample including all respondents from all participating countries, I examine a separate sample for each country to determine which job characteristics best predict job satisfaction in that particular country and then make cross-national comparisons. Then I utilize Hierarchical Linear Modeling (—see section on data analysis methods for additional details) to analyze job satisfaction at the national level, with each country as the unit of analysis. Finally, I utilize such data sources as the OECD, CIA Fact Book, United Nations, etc., to provide country-level contextual variables on the relevant economic, cultural, political, and social conditions in these countries (see reference list for complete citation on these statistical sources).

¹ ISSP Researchers collected the data via self-administered questionnaires, personal interviews, and mail-back questionnaires, depending on the country, and were collected in 1989, 1996-97, and 2004-5, respectively.

² For a full summary and description of this research, see the ICPSR Study Scope and Description Summary at <http://webapp.icpsr.umich.edu/cocoon/ICPSR-STUDY/03032.xml>.

With 11 countries included in 1989, 26 countries included in 1997, and 32 countries included in 2005, it is important to note where the study countries fall within the broader world context (272 world countries identified by the CIA World Factbook for 2005). Table 2 shows the countries included in each wave of the study. In 1989, the 11 countries participating in the study were primarily Western European nations, in addition to the United States, Israel, and Hungary. In 1997, the number of participating countries increased to 26, with several more former Eastern Bloc nations—in addition to Hungary—participating, a greater number of European countries participating, as well as nations from the Asia participating for the first time. Additionally, Canada joined the U.S.A. as the only other North American country participating in the study. In 2005, the number of participating countries again increased, this time to 32 nations, with a handful of the 1997 nations dropping out and more European, Central American, and Asian countries participating. Once more, in 2005 South Africa became the only nation from the African continent to participate.

Generally speaking, in comparison to all countries in the world, the 2005 participating countries experience relatively high GDP per capita and an economic sectoral composition dominated by the service sector. Among the 32 participating nations in 2005, the U.S. had the highest GDP per capita (\$40,100) and the Philippines had the lowest (\$5000), though there were 100 nations across the world with a GDP per capita below that of the Philippines. Most of the participating countries had a GDP per capita in the 20-30k range, making them among the wealthiest nations in the world. In terms of sectoral composition, among study nations only the Dominican Republic, Bulgaria, and the Philippines had an agricultural sector above 10% of their overall

Table 2: Study Countries by Year

1989	1997	2005
West Germany	West Germany	Australia
Great Britain	East Germany	West Germany
USA	Great Britain	East Germany
Austria	USA	Great Britain
Hungary	Hungary	United States
Netherlands	Italy	Hungary
Italy	Netherlands	Ireland
Ireland	Norway	Norway
Northern Ireland	Sweden	Sweden
Norway	Czech Republic	Czech Republic
Israel	Slovenia	Slovenia
	Poland	Bulgaria
	Bulgaria	Russia
	Russia	New Zealand
	New Zealand	Canada
	Canada	Philippines
	Philippines	Israel
	Israel	Japan
	Japan	Spain
	Spain	Latvia
	France	France
	Cyprus	Cyprus
	Portugal	Portugal
	Denmark	Denmark
	Switzerland	Switzerland
	Bangladesh	Flanders
		Finland
		Mexico
		Taiwan
		South Africa
		South Korea
		Dominican Republic

economy, while throughout the world, 83 countries had larger agricultural sectors as a percentage of the overall economy (GDP composition by sector). The other 29 participating countries had agricultural sectors between 1-6% of the overall economy (GDP composition by sector). The service sector is by far the strongest sector in each of the 32 participating countries, followed by the industrial sector, with the percentage service sector ranging from just 49% in Hungary, to nearly 80% in the U.S. Additionally, the percentage of industrial sector ranges from just below 20% in the U.S. and Cyprus, to just over 40% in South Korea. In contrast, across the majority of countries around the world, the agricultural and industrial sectors make up the largest percentage of the overall economy.

Operationalization of Variables

I use Handel's (2005) job satisfaction model (based on Kalleberg's 1977 findings) for conducting a cross-national comparison of job satisfaction and the perceived importance of intrinsic and extrinsic job quality characteristic variations across countries (see also Munoz de Bustillo Llorente & Fernandez Macias 2005; Souza-Poza & Souza-Poza 2000; Spector 1997). Handel (2005) characterized 12 variables from the General Social Survey into intrinsic and extrinsic job quality factors. Ten of the 12 variables used by Handel are available for all countries in each of the three waves of the International Social Survey data used for this study and are outlined below (see Appendix A for a complete breakdown of all variable operationalization).

Key Job Quality Characteristics Related to Job Satisfaction

All variables are single-item measures based on the survey questions below.

Dependent Variable:

Job Satisfaction³ “How satisfied are you in your main job?”

Key Independent Variables (From the ISSP):

Intrinsic Rewards:

*Nonmaterial Rewards*⁴

Interesting Job “My job is interesting”
Job Autonomy “I can work independently”

*Quality of Workplace Interpersonal Relationships*⁵

Management-Employee Relations “In general, how would you describe relations at your workplace between management and employees?”

Coworker Relations “In general, how would you describe relations at your workplace between workmates/colleagues?”

Extrinsic Rewards:

*Material Rewards*⁶

Pay “My income is high”
Job Security “My job is secure”
Promotional Opportunities “My opportunities for advancement are high”

³ Response categories for this variable included (1) Completely Dissatisfied, (2) Very Dissatisfied, (3) Fairly Dissatisfied, (4) Neither Satisfied nor Dissatisfied, (5) Fairly Satisfied, (6) Very Satisfied, (7) Completely Satisfied, (8) Can't Choose, and (9) No Answer.

⁴ Response categories for these variables included (1) Strongly Disagree, (2) Disagree, (3) Neither Agree Nor Disagree, (4) Agree, (5) Strongly Agree, (8) Can't Choose, and (9) No Answer.

⁵ Response categories for these variable included (1) Very Bad, (2) Bad, (3) Neither Good nor Bad, (4) Good, (5) Very Good, (8) Can't Choose, and (9) No Answer.

⁶ Response categories for these variables included (1) Strongly Disagree, (2) Disagree, (3) Neither Agree Nor Disagree, (4) Agree, (5) Strongly Agree, (8) Can't Choose, and (9) No Answer.

Other Work Conditions⁷

Workload	“How often do you come home from work exhausted?”
Physical Effort	“How often do you have to do hard physical work?”
Danger	“How often do you work in dangerous conditions?”

Individual control variables

Though the literature has identified many important individual control variables, due to limitations in data availability, control variables used for the quantitative piece of this study will be limited to the following individual characteristics: *full-time/part-time status*, *self-employment status*, *gender*, *age*, *marital status*, and *education* (see Carlson & Mellor, 2004; Hammermesh, 1999; Hodson, 2002; Souza-Poza & Souza-Poza, 2000).

Country-level cultural variables

Many researchers have proposed the importance of accounting for cross-cultural differences in cross-national research (see Gill & Lundsgaarde, 2007; Hofstede, 1980; Kirkman & Shapiro, 2001; Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Reed, 2007). Among the many cross-cultural variables commonly measured, among the most common are the following variables from the GLOBE project⁸: *low vs. high power distance*, *individualism vs. collectivism*, *masculinity vs. femininity*, *low vs. high uncertainty avoidance*, and *long vs. short term orientation* (Hofstede, 1980; see also Kirkman & Shapiro, 2001—findings from the GLOBE Project; see Appendix A for more details). Additionally, it would be

⁷ Response categories for these variable included (1) Never, (2) Hardly Ever, (3) Sometimes, (4) Often, (5) Always, (8) Can't Choose, and (9) No Answer.

⁸ For a full summary and description of this research, see at <http://www.grovetwell.com/pub-GLOBE-intro.html>.

useful to measure other cross-cultural differences, such as level of *secularization and religiosity* (Albrecht & Heaton, 1984; Gill & Lundsgaarde, 2007; Reed, 2007), though availability of these variables across the 32 countries included in the 2005 wave of the ISSP is limited.

Country-level worker expectation variables

Additionally, many researchers have explored the role of expectations on worker attitudes, arguing that an individual's perception of conditions may drive attitudes more than actual conditions (see Bal et al., 2010; De Cuyper, & De Witte, 2007; 2006; Hill & Nanere, 2006; Irving & Montes, 2009; Luchak & Gellatly, 2002; Turnley & Feldman, 2000). Some researchers have examined the role of the employer/employee psychological contract on worker satisfaction (Bal et al., 2010; De Cuyper & De Witte, 2006; Luchak & Gellatly, 2002; Turnley & Feldman, 2000), consistently finding that employer psychological contract violations negatively impact worker satisfaction. Others researchers have looked at the linkage between worker expectations based on different micro- and macroeconomic factors and job satisfaction (Hill & Nanere, 2006; Irving & Montes, 2009), with mixed findings. More specifically, recent research has started to explore the relationship between worker job insecurity expectations and job satisfaction (De Cuyper & De Witte, 2007), finding that expectations of job insecurity lead to lower employee job satisfaction. While both variables measuring individual-level expectations based on the employer/employee psychological contract of workers and variables measuring individual-level expectations based on economic factors are not available in the ISSP Work Orientation modules, country-level changes in macroeconomic data

between waves are available for the 32 countries included in the 2005 wave. Specifically, I use two country-level economic variables to try and get at possible positive or negative worker expectations related to job insecurity: (1) Change in GDP (change from 1997 to 2005 wave; from CIA Factbook), and (2) Change in Unemployment Rate (change from 1997 to 2005 wave; from CIA Factbook). Using this approach, economic growth and a reduction in the national unemployment rate represents positive employee expectations of work conditions and job security, while economic stagnation or decline, coupled with an increase in national unemployment rate represents negative expectations of work conditions and job insecurity.

Country-contextual variables

Adelman and Morris (1973) suggested the use of a variety of socio-cultural, political, and economic indicators in understanding issues connected to development; they recommended variables included the following categories: social variables, human capital variables, and economic variables. Additionally, other researchers have suggested the importance of a variety of variables related to welfare state provisions, as such common measures of welfare state size and reach could help to better understand how cross-national differences in welfare security measures and policy that impact worker attitudes about their job (Esping-Andersen, 1990; Hall & Soskice, 2001; Huber & Stephens, 2001; Scruggs & Allan, 2006;). This research utilizes the following country-contextual variables (see Appendix A for more details):

- Female Labor Force Participation Rate
- Percentage Service Sector Economy
- Percentage Industrial Sector Economy

- GDP
- GDP per capita
- Government Revenues as a Percentage of Total GDP
- Government Expenditures as a Percentage of Total GDP
- Public Health Expenditure as a Percentage of Total Health Expenditure
- Public Debt as a Percentage of GDP
- Union Density
- Rigidity of Employment Index
- Economic Freedom Index
- Gini Coefficient of Inequality
- Human Development Index
- Democracy Index

Additionally, high/low dummy variables were created for each of these country-contextual variables using sample mean scores as the cut-off point. Finally, dummy variables were created for country classifications of semiperiphery and core nations in the study, as well as coercive capitalist and fragmented multiclass states in the state (see Appendix A for more details; see Kohli, 2004; Wallerstein, 2000).

These variables were collected for each country in the 2005 wave of the data, using the following data sources (see reference list for complete data citations):

- CIA World Factbook
- OECD Data
- UNDP—Human Development Report
- International Monetary Fund's World Economic Outlook Report
- The Economist Intelligence Unit's Index of Democracy

- World Development Indicators Database

A note on cross-cultural variation

In any research comparing data from various countries throughout the world, cross-cultural variation and culturally motivated bias in responses is always an issue. Though this research is not designed to be cross-cultural, per se, it is important to understand the possible implications of culturally-motivated biased perceptions in responses, due to the cross-national comparative nature of this research. Fischer (2004) explained, “Response bias is the systematic tendency to distort responses to rating scales so that observed scores are unrelated to the true score of the individual by either selecting extreme or modest answers (extreme or modesty response bias) or a shifting of responses to either end of the scale (acquiescence response bias)” (p. 263; see also Byrne & Campbell, 1999; Cheung & Rensvold, 2000). Additionally, Sousa-Pouza and Sousa-Pouza (2000) state, “If the questionnaire or the topic being studied is ‘ethnically biased,’ then errors in perception will occur” (p. 521). Indeed, a cross-national analysis of subjective variables can produce a number of data and methodological problems.⁹

However, several researchers have found that individuals compare their situation to those around them, and that happiness and well-being are based on this relative comparison

⁹ Despite these data and methodological problems, the use of data standardization, as an adjustment of raw scores in cross-cultural research to correct for such response tendencies, is used to reduce or eliminate unwanted cross-cultural differences that are not due to variables of interest, but rather response sets and methodological artifacts (see Hofstede, 1980). Detecting potential response bias requires researchers to identify different response patterns based on particular methods used and eliminate them. Furthermore, researchers need to detect and control for this bias or error variance in cross-cultural research, and assuming that different patterns are some form of bias, researchers need to standardize their data to reduce this error variance (Fischer, 2004). In the ISSP data, the original researchers have already taken appropriate methodological precautions against response bias, and additionally I have adjusted the raw scores through data standardization and reporting beta coefficients, thus “remov[ing] variation that is substantial and related to culture” (Fischer, 2004, p. 264).

(Clark & Oswald, 1996; Diener et al., 1995). Furthermore, most studies examining job satisfaction are based on this type of data (Sousa-Pouza & Sousa-Pouza, 2000).

Additionally, controlling for country-specific cultural characteristics will help in avoiding this problem.

Description of Data Analysis Methods

First, I use data from the above-mentioned quantitative sources to perform a descriptive statistical analysis of work characteristics and job satisfaction for individual countries and across nations (32 total countries in the 2005 wave; see Appendix B). These bivariate and multivariate analyses include trend analysis, correlations, ANOVA and ANCOVA procedures, cross-tabulations, as well as general descriptive statistics of job quality characteristics and job satisfaction in each country to provide descriptive comparative similarities and differences between countries. Additionally, I include both aggregate and country-specific OLS regression models of the impact of individual work characteristics on job satisfaction to provide additional comparison between countries.

Studies of job satisfaction and job quality have included a variety of statistical approaches to examine the relationship between job satisfaction and job quality characteristics. In a study conducted with a similar design to this one, Handel used Ordinary Least Squares Regression to examine these relationships. Handel (2005) selected this statistical procedure for “ease of interpretation,” and notes identical models using other statistical procedures “indicates few substantive differences” (p. 74). However, for these data, it is more appropriate to use the procedure used by Souza-Poza and Souza-Poza (2000)—namely ordered probit regression (used when the dependent

variable is ordered and categorical). Therefore, I ran identical models using both OLS and ordered probit procedures.¹⁰ Upon comparing the OLS and ordered probit results, I have come to the same conclusion as Handel—namely that for the purposes of comparing coefficients and significance across countries and across models, as well as for overall ease of interpretation of the results, OLS is sufficient (however, full ordered probit results are all available upon request).

Second, I use hierarchical linear modeling, or multilevel analysis (including intrinsic characteristics, extrinsic characteristics, and individual control variables), to test whether there is in fact a statistically significant country effect (32 total countries in the 2005 wave; see Appendix B). Given that the dependent variable, some independent variables, and individual control variables are measured at the individual level, while other independent variables will be measured at the country level, hierarchical or cross-level techniques are preferable as it is able to overcome the statistical weaknesses of traditional methods for analyzing nested data (Hoffman, 1997). Conventional statistical techniques are inadequate to test hierarchical models and can result in aggregation bias, misestimated precision and levels of analysis problems (Bryk & Raudenbush, 1992; 2002). Therefore, because ordinary least squares (OLS) techniques have been criticized for their inadequacy in addressing cross-level issues in studies such as this (Rousseau,

¹⁰ Due to the ordinal nature of the dependant variable, it is most appropriate to use an ordered probit regression to look at the effect of different job characteristics on one's overall job satisfaction. However, many researchers have argued that using OLS regression is appropriate when looking at satisfaction variables on a Likert scale, where most respondents understand that the difference between responses of 1 and 2 is the same as the difference between responses of 2 and 3, and so on. Additionally, using OLS regression results allows us to report an *r*-squared and adjusted *r*-squared value for the model and compare coefficients across models, which comparison is not appropriate in a probit model. Therefore, all regression results reported herein are OLS regression result. It is important to note that when the same OLS models were run in an ordered probit regression, the same significant results appeared for each of the independent and control variables across countries and waves (full ordered probit model results are available upon request).

1985), I use hierarchical linear modeling to test cross-level relationships (Bryk & Raudenbush, 1992; 2002; Snijders & Bosker, 2003). Since, in part, this study involves assessing the impact of country-level factors on individuals, the models consists of two levels (Bryk & Raudenbush, 1992; 2002). At level 1, the unit of analysis is the individual, and each person's outcome is a function of a set of individual characteristics and responses. At level 2, the unit of analysis is each nation, where the dependent variable is hypothesized to depend on specific country factors, adjusted for the regression coefficients in the level 1 model. In addition, being able to assess between-respondents variance and group effects while controlling for within-respondent variance is advantageous because it controls for potential autocorrelation and heteroskedasticity and also provides coefficients that can be interpreted like those of ordinary least squares regression analysis (Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002; Hoffman, 1997).

Limitations of Data

One of the primary limitations of the available attitudinal data is that each question represents a subjective single item indicator. As Souza-Poza and Souza-Poza (2000) aptly point out, “[Subjective Well Being] scores depend on the type of scale used, the ordering of the items, the time-frame of the questions, the current mood at the time of measurement, and other situational factors” (p. 5; see also Diener et al., 1999). They further point out that, as the ISSP data set only measures job satisfaction as a single-item indicator, variance due to the wording of the item cannot be averaged out and the single item further makes the evaluation of internal consistency problematic. Another problem is the nonpanel longitudinal nature of the data. I will use three waves of cross-sectional

data and therefore I cannot specifically test the direction of causality among the variables examined as easily as I might with panel longitudinal data. However, I provide a conceptual framework that hypothesizes the path of causality in addition to utilizing nonpanel longitudinal data, which enables comparison of like variables over time. Additionally, some variables of interest (i.e., work-related stress) and other important control variables (e.g., total hours worked per week, or whether or not an individual worked for the government) cannot be included in the analysis, as data are not available for each wave of data collection across all countries of interest. Lastly, the national structural/contextual variables, though often exact from the available data sources, in other cases will represent my best approximations for 1989, 1997, and 2005. In some cases where data are not available for that exact year, I will need to find available data from the closest approximate year to take its place. In other cases where there are no data for an approximate year, I produce estimated values based on percent change from two other points in time.

CHAPTER 4

ANALYSIS OF DATA

This section is divided into two subsections. The first subsection presents the aggregate and country-specific descriptive analysis and results. Specifically, it covers the following: (1) tabulations and means of demographic control variables, (2) a comparison of mean values of the key theoretical variables across country and wave, and (3) intercorrelations and other descriptive statistics of the study variables at the aggregate level. The second subsection provides the following: (1) aggregated OLS regression results by wave, (2) OLS regression results by country and wave, (3) results for the third wave, and (4) an examination of these results in relation to the 10 study hypotheses.

Aggregate and Country-Specific Descriptive Analysis and Results

Tabulations and means of demographic control variables

Table 3 provides a breakdown of the individual control variable tabulations and mean scores across the three waves of the survey (the tables in Appendix D provide more detailed comparisons of individual-level control variable tabulations and mean scores across all countries within each wave).¹

¹ It is important to note that each of the three waves of data included different numbers of countries (1989—11, 1997—26, and 2005—32; see Appendix B). While 6 countries were included in all three

Table 3: Tabulations and Means of Individual Controls,
all Countries, by Year

Variable	1989	1997	2005
Full-Time/Part-Time Status			
Full-Time	82.60%	83.28%	82.20%
Part-Time	17.40%	16.72%	17.80%
Employment Status			
Employed by Org.	86.90%	88.61%	83.29%
Self-Employed	13.10%	11.39%	16.71%
Gender			
Female	43.34%	44.31%	47.52%
Age	38.40	39.31	41.90
Years of Education	11.50	12.37	12.62
Marital Status			
Married	66.08%	64.68%	62.48%
Widowed	1.59%	1.85%	2.61%
Divorced	6.11%	6.53%	7.55%
Separated	1.17%	1.60%	2.38%
Single	25.05%	25.34%	24.97%

Full tabulation/mean comparison tables for each of the individual-level control variables, by country and year are provided in Appendix D¹

Despite the differences in number/types of countries included in each wave of the survey, the percentage of full-time workers (from all countries) in each wave remained very consistent from 1989 to 2005, right around 82-83% of workers surveyed. There was a little more variation in the number of respondents who classify themselves as self-employed, with the percentage of self-employed dropping from 13.10% to 11.39% from 1989 to 1989, and then increasing to 16.71% from 1997 to 2005. Additionally, the percent of female workers as a percentage of total workers in the sample increased from wave to wave, from 43.34% in 1989, to 47.52% in 2005. The average age of the respondents across all countries in each wave increased from 38.4 years of age in 1989, to nearly 42 years of age in 2005, while average years of education also increased from

waves, and 22 countries were included in both the 1997 and 2005 wave, interpretation of changes over time in aggregated results based on all countries should be done with caution.

wave to wave. Finally, the tabulation of marital status by wave shows that married individuals make up roughly 66% of the respondents in 1989, a little more than 64.5% in 1997, and around 62.5% in 2005.

Comparison of mean values among the main study variables

Table 4 shows the mean perceived job satisfaction and job characteristics scores between the three waves of the ISSP Work Orientations (for all countries in each wave), followed by the percent change in mean scores from 1989 to 1997, 1997 to 2005, and overall from 1989 to 2005. Additionally, job autonomy (decline), interesting work (decline), workload (increase), and physical effort (increase) each changed modestly from 1989 to 2005, with the degree of perceived intrinsic work characteristics declining across the board, and all extrinsic work characteristics except pay and promotional opportunities also declining.² Additionally, Table 5 shows mean changes in job satisfaction by country and wave.

Specifically, for those 6 countries included in all three waves (West Germany, Great Britain, United States, Hungary, Norway, and Israel), all but Israel (which increased in each wave) saw a dip in mean job satisfactions score from 1989 to 1997 and then a rebound from 1997 to 2005 with 2005 levels surpassing 1989 levels. Additionally, New Zealand, the Philippines, Spain, France, Cyprus, and Denmark were the only countries of the 22 countries included in both the 1997 and 2005 waves that saw a decline in mean job satisfaction from 1997 to 2005.

² It is important to note that each of the three waves of data included different numbers of countries (1989—11, 1997—26, and 2005—32; see Appendix B). While 6 countries were included in all three waves, and 22 countries were included in both the 1997 and 2005 wave, interpretation of changes over time in aggregated results based on all countries should be done with caution.

Table 4: Trends in Perceived Job Characteristics Mean Scores, 1989-2005,
for all Countries

Variables				%	%	%
	1989	1997	2005	Change 1989- 1997	Change 1997- 2005	Change 1989- 2005
Job Satisfaction	5.31	5.25	5.25	-1.09	0.06	-1.03
Management/Employee Relations	3.88	3.86	3.88	-0.41	0.38	-0.03
Coworker Relations	4.25	4.21	4.17	-0.77	-1.03	-1.80
Job Autonomy	3.87	3.79	3.77	-2.00	-0.68	-2.66
Interesting Work	3.88	3.88	3.80	-0.08	-1.91	-1.99
Job Security	3.86	3.63	3.61	-5.87	-0.68	-6.51
Pay	2.73	2.68	2.74	-1.65	2.02	0.33
Promotional Opportunities	2.69	2.64	2.72	-1.86	3.05	1.14
Workload	3.25	3.35	3.33	3.09	-0.56	2.52
Physical Effort	2.41	2.44	2.53	1.44	3.59	5.08
Danger	1.92	2.06	2.08	7.24	1.20	8.52

Table 5: Mean Job Satisfaction,
by Country and Year (1989-2005)

Country	1989	1997	2005
Australia	-	-	5.18
Austria	5.46	-	-
Bangladesh	-	5.30	-
Bulgaria	-	5.02	5.09
Canada	-	5.10	5.24
Cyprus	-	5.61	4.97
Czech Republic	-	5.12	5.16
Denmark	-	5.70	5.51
Dominican Republic	-	-	5.36
Finland	-	-	5.31
Flanders	-	-	4.97
France	-	5.08	4.89
Germany-East	-	4.97	5.46
Germany-West	5.34	5.19	5.42
Great Britain	5.25	5.08	5.27
Hungary	4.86	4.78	5.14
Ireland	5.54	-	5.63
Israel	5.26	5.44	5.64
Italy	5.16	5.15	-
Japan	-	4.83	5.45
Latvia	-	-	5.25
Mexico	-	-	5.88
Netherlands	5.28	5.42	-
New Zealand	-	5.36	4.99
Northern Ireland	5.35	-	-
Norway	5.35	5.24	5.63
Philippines	-	5.64	5.32
Poland	-	5.17	-
Portugal	-	5.21	5.52
Russia	-	4.93	5.22
Slovenia	-	4.94	5.10
Spain	-	5.41	4.94
South Africa	-	-	5.17
South Korea	-	-	4.76
Sweden	-	5.23	5.30
Switzerland	-	5.45	5.72
Taiwan	-	-	5.01
United States	5.43	5.35	5.46

Separate ANOVA and ANCOVA analyses show significant differences
(at .05 or less level of significance)

Note: Job Satisfaction is on a 1-7 scale (1 low, 7 high)

Tables 6, 7, and 8 provide a comparison of the mean values among the main study variables across each country in that wave, in 1989, 1997, and 2005, respectively. Table 6, which includes 11 countries, shows that in 1989, Israel, Ireland, and West Germany had the highest mean perceived “management/employee relations” mean scores, with Hungary and the Netherlands with the lowest. Ireland, Norway, Northern Ireland, Great Britain, West Germany, Austria, and Israel each had significantly higher “coworker relations” mean scores than the U.S.A., Hungary, and Italy. Austria and Norway had the highest “job autonomy” mean scores, while Israel and Italy had the lowest.

Table 6: Variable Means by Country, 1989

Countries	Variables										
	Job Satisfaction	Man/Emp Rel	Coworker Rel	Job Autonomy	Interesting Work	Job Security	Pay	Prom opps	Workload	Physical Effort	Danger
West Germany	5.34	4.00	4.29	3.97	4.01	4.14	3.02	2.85	3.19	2.24	1.77
Great Britain	5.25	3.79	4.30	3.90	3.89	3.54	2.61	2.70	3.40	2.54	1.91
USA	5.43	3.82	4.05	3.93	3.89	3.92	2.79	3.00	3.28	2.53	2.04
Austria	5.46	3.99	4.29	4.10	4.04	4.33	2.94	2.82	3.14	2.24	1.89
Hungary	4.86	3.75	4.07	3.74	3.59	3.80	2.28	2.25	3.45	2.72	2.48
Netherlands	5.28	3.70	4.18	3.94	3.78	3.83	2.66	2.71	2.91	2.27	1.79
Italy	5.16	3.71	4.02	3.47	3.81	3.92	2.88	2.52	3.23	2.11	1.69
Ireland	5.54	4.08	4.45	3.69	3.91	3.71	2.66	2.68	3.16	2.45	1.66
Northern Ireland	5.35	3.81	4.36	3.84	3.87	3.55	2.56	2.57	3.30	2.62	1.88
Norway	5.35	3.89	4.41	4.13	3.96	3.76	2.58	2.33	3.28	2.49	2.04
Israel	5.26	4.11	4.28	3.49	3.76	3.69	2.94	3.14	3.40	2.32	1.79
<i>All</i>	<i>5.31</i>	<i>3.88</i>	<i>4.25</i>	<i>3.87</i>	<i>3.88</i>	<i>3.86</i>	<i>2.73</i>	<i>2.69</i>	<i>3.25</i>	<i>2.41</i>	<i>1.92</i>

Separate ANOVA and ANCOVA analyses show significant differences (at .05 or less level of significance) for all variables across the different countries.

Note: Job Satisfaction is on a 1-7 scale (1 low, 7 high) and the other variables are on a 1-5 scale (1 low, 5 high)

Table 7: Variable Means by Country, 1997

Countries	Variables										
	Job Satisfaction	Man/Emp Rel	Coworker Rel	Job Autonomy	Interesting Work	Job Security	Pay	Prom opps	Workload	Physical Effort	Danger
West Germany	5.19	3.95	4.25	4.11	4.08	3.83	2.91	2.55	3.31	2.12	1.83
East Germany	4.97	3.82	4.16	3.98	3.92	3.00	2.39	2.30	3.56	2.28	1.98
Great Britain	5.08	3.82	4.37	3.87	3.71	3.34	2.50	2.58	3.43	2.43	1.90
USA	5.35	3.86	4.14	3.96	3.83	3.80	2.77	2.93	3.39	2.50	2.08
Hungary	4.78	3.67	4.00	3.79	3.59	3.28	2.34	2.36	3.54	2.70	2.48
Italy	5.15	3.82	4.11	3.14	3.78	3.73	2.86	2.54	3.38	2.38	1.87
Netherlands	5.42	3.79	4.23	4.05	3.88	3.71	2.86	2.79	2.91	2.15	1.75
Norway	5.24	3.75	4.33	4.08	3.91	3.85	2.55	2.50	3.36	2.36	2.06
Sweden	5.23	3.70	4.27	4.01	3.87	3.48	2.55	2.69	3.25	2.58	2.10
Czech Republic	5.12	3.64	4.02	3.80	3.70	3.54	2.44	2.34	3.24	2.33	2.25
Slovenia	4.94	3.38	4.04	3.96	3.88	3.88	2.91	2.70	3.48	2.14	2.20
Poland	5.17	3.68	4.04	2.99	3.50	3.42	2.17	2.36	3.52	2.90	2.50
Bulgaria	5.02	3.76	3.94	3.19	3.56	3.09	2.30	2.49	3.75	2.72	2.56
Russia	4.93	3.43	3.87	3.35	3.37	3.45	2.51	2.25	3.30	2.50	2.28
New Zealand	5.36	4.01	4.39	4.09	3.98	3.48	2.58	2.71	3.33	2.40	1.94
Canada	5.10	3.82	4.17	3.93	3.89	3.53	2.86	2.73	3.33	2.61	1.95
Philippines	5.64	4.17	4.18	4.08	4.05	4.01	3.46	3.63	3.55	2.96	2.41
Israel	5.44	4.10	4.35	3.85	3.79	3.73	2.81	2.82	3.48	2.33	1.89
Japan	4.83	3.68	3.95	2.71	3.64	3.88	2.65	2.18	3.15	2.40	2.10
Spain	5.41	3.88	4.17	3.28	3.65	3.48	2.60	2.43	3.12	2.50	2.08
France	5.08	3.54	4.02	3.16	3.95	3.30	2.52	2.34	3.41	2.28	1.80
Cyprus	5.61	4.42	4.59	3.37	3.88	3.53	3.28	3.05	3.70	2.50	2.19
Portugal	5.21	4.03	4.17	3.83	4.20	3.59	2.15	2.62	3.65	2.60	2.41
Denmark	5.70	3.91	4.28	4.64	4.39	4.14	3.12	2.52	3.13	2.55	1.87
Switzerland	5.45	4.12	4.38	4.18	4.24	3.60	2.79	2.72	3.26	2.21	1.76
Bangladesh	5.30	4.39	4.64	3.35	3.47	3.77	2.36	3.06	2.85	2.49	1.75
<i>All</i>	5.25	3.86	4.21	3.79	3.88	3.63	2.68	2.64	3.35	2.44	2.06

Separate ANOVA and ANCOVA analyses show significant differences (at .05 or less level of significance) for all variables across the different countries.

Note: Job Satisfaction is on a 1-7 scale (1 low, 7 high) and the other variables are on a 1-5 scale (1 low, 5 high)

Table 8: Variable Means by Country, 2005

Countries	Variables										
	Job Satisfaction	Man/Emp Rel	Coworker Rel	Job Autonomy	Interesting Work	Job Security	Pay	Prom opps	Workload	Physical Effort	Danger
Australia	5.18	3.83	4.23	3.93	3.78	3.60	2.66	2.73	3.42	2.44	1.96
West Germany	5.42	4.08	4.30	4.19	4.11	3.83	2.69	2.71	3.36	2.47	1.97
East Germany	5.46	4.03	4.31	4.22	4.15	3.40	2.52	2.75	3.42	2.45	2.00
Great Britain	5.27	3.91	4.31	3.93	3.80	3.69	2.61	2.85	3.35	2.42	1.84
United States	5.46	3.90	4.17	3.97	4.08	3.81	2.72	2.91	3.36	2.55	2.05
Hungary	5.14	3.78	4.04	3.77	3.55	3.50	2.43	2.41	3.61	2.67	2.46
Ireland	5.63	4.22	4.56	3.88	4.05	3.86	2.82	2.79	3.28	2.32	1.73
Norway	5.30	3.80	4.36	4.08	3.95	3.60	2.61	2.51	3.29	2.32	2.10
Sweden	5.16	3.75	4.28	3.95	3.82	3.65	2.55	2.72	3.25	2.64	2.09
Czech Republic	5.10	3.66	3.93	3.77	3.58	3.39	2.62	2.39	3.32	2.39	2.02
Slovenia	5.09	3.51	4.08	3.97	3.86	3.91	3.24	2.80	3.48	2.29	2.23
Bulgaria	5.22	3.98	4.03	3.26	3.47	3.23	2.38	2.60	3.79	2.54	2.16
Russia	4.99	3.68	3.95	3.10	3.50	3.72	2.76	2.61	3.21	2.50	2.32
New Zealand	5.24	4.04	4.36	4.06	3.94	3.70	2.81	2.85	3.23	2.47	2.06
Canada	5.32	3.79	4.11	4.14	3.98	3.69	3.01	2.81	3.24	2.35	2.03
Philippines	5.64	4.03	4.01	3.98	3.81	3.69	3.05	3.18	3.50	3.20	2.63
Israel	5.45	4.18	4.41	3.78	3.82	3.56	2.77	2.71	3.31	2.40	1.84
Japan	4.94	3.73	3.99	2.84	3.57	3.68	2.62	2.06	3.13	2.43	2.02
Spain	5.25	3.77	4.02	3.30	3.38	3.72	2.73	2.60	3.23	2.64	2.24
Latvia	4.89	3.71	4.07	3.09	3.43	3.28	2.33	2.37	3.52	2.75	2.11
France	4.97	3.49	4.04	3.67	3.92	3.39	2.36	2.22	3.45	2.37	1.88
Cyprus	5.52	4.18	4.20	3.16	3.52	3.51	3.11	2.82	3.19	2.08	1.87
Portugal	5.29	4.03	4.17	3.52	3.91	3.56	2.44	2.91	3.47	2.50	1.99
Denmark	5.51	3.85	4.19	4.55	4.29	3.92	3.04	2.49	3.32	2.55	1.98
Switzerland	5.72	4.27	4.55	4.29	4.35	3.68	2.96	2.86	3.12	2.24	1.79
Flanders	4.97	3.67	4.07	3.89	3.84	3.65	2.91	2.82	3.06	2.34	2.11
Finland	5.31	3.77	4.04	3.97	3.86	3.51	2.74	2.56	3.17	2.50	2.13
Mexico	5.88	4.14	4.24	3.91	4.01	3.81	2.84	3.12	3.37	2.64	2.15
Taiwan	5.01	3.90	4.08	3.83	3.43	3.44	2.84	2.70	3.10	2.58	1.98
South Africa	5.17	3.95	4.23	3.41	3.56	3.58	2.65	2.93	3.65	3.00	2.52
South Korea	4.76	3.83	4.04	3.49	3.28	3.18	2.60	2.78	3.39	3.05	2.44
Dominican Republic	5.36	4.11	4.15	3.38	3.92	3.68	3.15	3.34	3.26	2.64	2.08
<i>All</i>	<i>5.25</i>	<i>3.88</i>	<i>4.17</i>	<i>3.77</i>	<i>3.80</i>	<i>3.61</i>	<i>2.74</i>	<i>2.72</i>	<i>3.33</i>	<i>2.53</i>	<i>2.08</i>

Separate ANOVA and ANCOVA analyses show significant differences (at .05 or less level of significance) for all variables across the different countries.

Note: Job Satisfaction is on a 1-7 scale (1 low, 7 high) and the other variables are on a 1-5 scale (1 low, 5 high)

West Germany and Austria had the highest “interesting work” mean scores, with all the rest but Hungary (the lowest) having very similar mean scores. Perceived “job security” was the lowest in Great Britain and Northern Ireland, while it was significantly higher in Austria and West Germany. Hungary, Northern Ireland, Norway, and Great Britain had the lowest “pay” mean scores, with the highest scores coming in West Germany, Austria, and Israel. Perceived “promotional opportunities” were highest in the U.S.A. and Israel, while Norway and Hungary had significantly lower mean scores. Perceived “workload” was highest in Great Britain, Hungary, and Israel, and lowest in the Netherlands. “Physical effort” and “danger” was highest in Hungary and lowest in Italy and Ireland, respectively. Overall, a comparison of extrinsic workplace characteristics mean scores (job security, pay, promotional opportunities, workload, physical effort, and danger) with intrinsic job characteristics mean scores (management/employee relations, coworker relations, job autonomy, and interesting work) shows overall higher levels of perceived intrinsic workplace characteristics across most countries, with the exception of “job security” being higher than some of the intrinsic factors in all but Great Britain, Northern Ireland, and Norway.

Table 7 shows similar differences and similarities in 1997, while providing a wider range of countries for comparison (26 in all). Cyprus and Bangladesh had both the highest perceived “management/employee relations” and “coworker relations” mean scores, while Russia had the lowest in both areas. Denmark had by far the highest “job autonomy” mean scores, while Japan and Poland had by far the lowest. Denmark and Switzerland had by far the highest “interesting work” mean scores, while Russia had by far the lowest. Perceived “job security” was the highest in Denmark and the Philippines,

while it was significantly lower in East Germany and Bulgaria. Portugal, Bulgaria, and Hungary, had the lowest “pay” mean scores, with the highest scores coming in the Philippines and Cyprus. Perceived “promotional opportunities” were highest in the Philippines, Bangladesh, and Cyprus, while Japan and Russia had by far the lowest mean scores. Perceived “workload” was highest in Bulgaria and Cyprus and lowest in Bangladesh and the Netherlands. “Physical effort” was highest in the Philippines and Poland, while West Germany, Slovenia, and the Netherlands had the lowest mean scores. Finally, “danger” was highest in Bulgaria, Poland, and Hungary and lowest in the Netherlands, Bangladesh, and Switzerland. The same comparison of extrinsic workplace characteristics mean scores with intrinsic job characteristics mean scores (as done for 1989) shows an overall increase in the degree of perceived intrinsic workplace characteristics across most countries, while again “job security” is the extrinsic factor with consistently the highest mean scores across the 26 countries.

Finally, Table 8 shows mean comparisons of main study variables for 2005 (32 countries). Switzerland, Ireland, Israel, and Cyprus had both the highest perceived “management/employee relations,” while Slovenia and the Czech Republic have the lowest. Ireland and Switzerland also had the highest “coworker relations” mean scores, while the Czech Republic, Russia, and Japan had the lowest mean scores. Denmark and Switzerland had by far the highest “job autonomy” mean scores, while Japan and Russia had by far the lowest. As in 1997, Denmark and Switzerland had by far the highest “interesting work” mean scores, while South Korean, Spain, Latvia, and Taiwan had the lowest. Perceived “job security” was the highest in Denmark and Slovenia, while it was lowest in South Korea, Bulgaria, Latvia, and the Czech Republic. Bulgaria, Hungary,

and Portugal had the lowest “pay” mean scores, with the highest scores coming in the Slovenia and the Dominican Republic. Perceived “promotional opportunities” were highest in the Dominican Republic, the Philippines, and Mexico, while Japan and France had by far the lowest mean scores. Perceived “workload” was highest in Bulgaria, South Africa, and Hungary and lowest in Flanders and Taiwan. “Physical effort” was highest in the Philippines, South Korea and South Africa, while Cyprus had by far the lowest mean scores.

Finally, “danger” was highest in Hungary and South Korea and lowest in Ireland and Switzerland. The same comparison of extrinsic workplace characteristics mean scores with intrinsic job characteristics mean scores (as done for 1989 and 1997) shows overall higher levels of perceived intrinsic workplace characteristics across most countries, while again “job security” is the extrinsic factor with consistently the highest mean scores across the 32 countries.

Intercorrelations among the main study variables

Table 12 summarizes the intercorrelations of the study variables to job satisfaction, by year (see tables in Appendix C for complete correlation matrices). Job satisfaction is found to be significantly related to each of the main study variables in each wave of the study (1989, 1997, and 2005)³: management/employee relations, coworker relations, job autonomy, interesting work, job security, pay, promotional opportunities,

³ Additionally, job satisfaction is found to be significantly related to each of the individual-level control variables, with some variation between each wave of the study: full-time status, self-employment status, gender, age, years of education, and marital status dummy variables (“separated” is the only marital status dummy variable without a significant correlation coefficient in at least one of the three waves; see Appendix C).

Table 12: Pearson Correlation between Job Satisfaction and Other Job Characteristics, by Year

Variable	1989	1997	2005
Management/Employee Relations	0.4326*	0.4368*	0.4535*
Coworker Relations	0.3325*	0.3320*	0.3406*
Job Autonomy	0.2854*	0.2896*	0.2714*
Interesting Work	0.4547*	0.4841*	0.4796*
Job Security	0.2362*	0.2356*	0.2633*
Pay	0.2733*	0.2872*	0.3000*
Promotional Opportunities	0.2743*	0.2943*	0.3063*
Workload	-0.1123*	-0.1276*	-0.1664*
Physical Effort	-0.0988*	-0.0949*	-0.1187*
Danger	-0.1028*	-0.1028*	-0.1041*

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.001 level (2-tailed).

Full correlation matrices of all individual-level variables for each year are provided in Appendix C

workload, physical effort, and danger. The relationships of the study variables appear to be in the anticipated direction.

Aggregate and Country-Specific OLS and HLM Regression

Results and Hypotheses Testing

This section provides the following: (1) aggregated OLS regression results by wave, (2) OLS regression results by country and wave, (3) results for the third wave, and (4) an examination of these results in relation to the 10 study hypotheses.

Aggregate OLS regression analysis by year

To fully examine the association between job satisfaction and the independent variables, four regression analyses were conducted on the aggregated data for all countries for each of the three waves of the survey (see tables in Appendix E). The first base model, which regresses job satisfaction on the individual control variables, examines

how much variance in job satisfaction is accounted for by the control variables. The next two analyses (models 1 and 2) pertain to the separate analysis of the intrinsic and extrinsic job characteristics independent variables, and involve regressing each of these factors on job satisfaction and the control variables. The last analysis (model 3) jointly examines the influences of all the independent variables (both extrinsic and intrinsic) on job satisfaction and the control variables.

Table 13 summarizes the regression results of the final model for each of the three waves, for all countries.

Table 13: OLS Regression Results of Study Variables on Job Satisfaction, by Year

Variable	1989	1997	2005
Management/Employee Relations	0.228(.014)***	0.245(.010)***	0.259(.009)***
Coworker Relations	0.121(.017)***	0.081(.013)***	0.088(.011)***
Job Autonomy	0.054(.012)***	0.050(.008)***	0.037(.007)***
Interesting Work	0.291(.013)***	0.329(.009)***	0.310(.008)***
Job Security	0.063(.011)***	0.053(.007)***	0.068(.007)***
Pay	0.109(.012)***	0.113(.009)***	0.092(.007)***
Promotional Opportunities	0.092(.011)***	0.071(.009)***	0.067(.007)***
Workload	-0.092(.013)***	-0.082(.010)***	-0.078(.007)***
Physical Effort	0.017(.010)	0.041(.008)***	0.007(.007)
Danger	-0.007(.011)	-0.009(.008)	-0.017(.007)**
Full-Time/Part-Time	0.023(.032)**	-0.007(.024)	-0.007(.019)
Self-Employed	0.015(.040)	0.001(.026)	0.029(.022)***
Gender	0.052(.024)***	0.039(.018)***	0.020(.015)***
Age	0.074(.001)***	0.036(.001)***	0.039(.001)***
Years of Education	-0.042(.004)***	-0.024(.002)***	-0.047(.002)***
Widowed	-0.012(.090)	0.013(.059)	0.017(.048)**
Table 13 continued.			
Divorced	0.000(.046)	-0.003(.033)	-0.006(.026)
Separated	0.004(.099)	-0.003(.062)	-0.002(.045)
Single	-0.002(.028)	-0.031(.021)***	-0.029(.018)***
<i>N</i>	6,322	13,248	19,234
Adjusted R-square	0.383	0.387	0.392
<i>F</i>	207.79***	441.09***	652.33***

Beta values, followed by standard error values in parentheses.

Level of significance: * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$; *** = $p < .001$

Table 13 shows a similar adjusted r -squared for each wave of the survey (1989—0.383; 1997—0.387; 2005—0.392). Additionally, there are certain demographic controls which show a significant association with job satisfaction; gender, age, and years of education were significant in each of the three waves, with being single providing a significant negative impact on job satisfaction in 1997 and 2005, and being self-employment (versus working for an organization) providing a significant positive impact on job satisfaction in 2005.

In each of the three waves, each of the intrinsic independent variables had a highly significant positive impact on job satisfaction, with “interesting work” and “management/employee relations” reporting the strongest standardized beta coefficients impacting job satisfaction in, when comparing within each wave. Furthermore, “job security,” “pay,” “promotional opportunities,” and “workload” were each highly significant in all three waves, with the first three extrinsic job characteristics providing a positive impact on job satisfaction, while “workload” provided the expected negative impact on job satisfaction. Additionally, “pay” had the strongest standardized beta coefficient of any of the extrinsic work characteristics in all three waves, when comparing coefficients within each wave. While neither “physical effort” nor “danger” was significant in 1989, “physical effort” had a slight positive impact on job satisfaction in 1997, and “danger” had a slight negative impact on job satisfaction in 2005.

OLS country comparisons by wave

Finally, the above specified final models were then run for each individual country included in each of the three waves. Tables 14 and 15 summarize the model

specifications and OLS regression coefficient significant of key job characteristics for each country across the three waves of the study (detailed regression results for each country and wave are available in Appendix F), showing the comparative predictability (adjusted r -squared) of the model from country to country, as well as indicating the standardized coefficient significance for each of the key independent variables in the model (as compared with the aggregated “all countries” model for the wave.

Table 14 shows comparative OLS regression coefficient significance of key job characteristics for each country across the three waves of the study. In 1989, Hungary is the only country in which “management/employee relations” is not statistically significant, while “coworker relations” is statistically significant in all countries but Italy and Ireland. Additionally, in 1989, “job autonomy” is only a statistically significant predictor of job satisfaction in Austria, Hungary, the Netherlands, and Northern Ireland, while “interesting work” is highly significant across each country (also with the highest standardized beta coefficient values). “Job security” is only significant in the U.S.A., Hungary, and Italy. However, “pay” is statistically significant in each country except Norway and Israel, while “promotional opportunities” is only significant in about half of the countries (excluding West Germany, Hungary, Italy, Northern Ireland, and Israel). “Workload” is significant in each country but Austria, Hungary, Italy, and Northern Ireland. “Physical effort” and “danger” are each only significant in West Germany and the Netherlands.

In 1997, as was the case with the 11 countries in the 1989 wave, there is a great deal of variation between countries in standardized beta coefficient significance for each

Table 14: Summary of OLS Regression Coefficient Significance
of Key Job Characteristics, by Country and Year

Country	M/E Relations			CW Relations			Job Autonomy			Interesting Work			Job Security		
	'89	'97	'05	'89	'97	'05	'89	'97	'05	'89	'97	'05	'89	'97	'05
Australia	-	-	***	-	-	~	-	-	~	-	-	***	-	-	***
Austria	***	-	-	*	-	-	*	-	-	***	-	-	~	-	-
Bangladesh	-	***	-	-	-	~	-	-	~	-	***	-	-	**	-
Bulgaria	-	***	**	-	-	~	-	-	~	-	***	***	-	**	~
Canada	-	***	***	-	-	~	-	-	~	-	***	***	-	~	~
Cyprus	-	***	***	-	-	~	-	-	~	-	***	~	-	~	~
Czech Republic	-	***	***	-	*	***	-	-	~	-	***	***	-	***	***
Denmark	-	***	***	-	**	***	-	-	~	*	-	***	***	-	~
Dominican Republic	-	-	**	-	-	~	-	-	~	-	-	***	-	-	~
Finland	-	-	***	-	-	*	-	-	~	-	-	***	-	-	~
Flanders	-	-	***	-	-	~	-	-	*	-	-	***	-	-	~
France	-	***	***	-	**	***	-	-	~	***	-	***	***	-	*
Germany-East	-	***	~	-	~	**	-	-	~	***	-	***	***	-	~
Germany-West	***	***	***	***	~	~	~	**	*	***	***	***	~	*	~
Great Britain	***	***	***	***	*	**	~	***	~	***	***	***	~	~	**
Hungary	~	***	***	*	-	~	***	-	~	~	***	***	***	***	**
Ireland	***	-	***	~	-	~	~	-	~	~	***	-	***	~	~
Israel	***	***	***	***	~	*	~	**	~	~	***	***	***	~	~
Italy	***	***	-	~	~	-	~	~	-	-	***	***	-	***	**
Japan	-	***	***	-	***	**	-	-	~	~	-	***	***	-	~
Latvia	-	-	***	-	-	***	-	-	~	~	-	-	***	-	~
Mexico	-	-	***	-	-	~	-	-	~	~	-	-	***	-	~
Netherlands	***	-	-	***	-	-	***	-	-	-	***	-	-	~	-
New Zealand	-	***	***	-	~	*	-	-	~	~	-	***	***	-	*
Northern Ireland	***	-	-	*	-	-	*	-	-	-	***	-	-	~	-
Norway	***	***	***	***	***	***	~	~	~	~	***	***	***	~	~
Philippines	-	~	~	-	~	~	-	~	~	~	-	***	***	-	***
Poland	-	***	-	-	~	-	-	~	-	-	-	***	-	-	**
Portugal	-	***	***	-	*	***	-	**	~	~	-	***	***	-	~
Russia	-	***	***	-	**	~	-	*	~	~	-	***	***	-	**
Slovenia	-	***	***	-	~	~	-	~	~	~	-	***	***	-	~
Spain	-	-	***	-	-	~	-	-	~	~	-	-	***	-	*
South Africa	-	-	***	-	-	~	-	-	~	~	-	-	***	-	~
South Korea	-	-	*	-	-	**	-	-	~	~	-	-	***	-	*
Sweden	-	***	***	-	**	***	-	***	*	*	-	***	***	-	~
Switzerland	-	***	~	-	***	***	-	**	*	*	-	***	***	-	**
Taiwan	-	-	***	-	-	**	-	-	~	~	-	-	***	-	***
United States	***	***	***	***	*	**	~	***	~	~	***	***	***	**	*
All	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***

Level of significance: ~ = $p > .05$; * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$; *** = $p < .001$; - denotes data not available for given year;
Based on standardized OLS beta values

Table 14 continued.

Country	Pay			Prom. Opp.			Workload			Physical Effort			Danger		
	'89	'97	'05	'89	'97	'05	'89	'97	'05	'89	'97	'05	'89	'97	'05
Australia	-	-	**	-	-	**	-	-	***	-	-	***	-	-	~
Austria	***	-	-	*	-	-	~	-	-	~	-	-	~	-	-
Bangladesh	-	~	-	-	~	-	-	~	-	-	~	-	-	*	-
Bulgaria	-	***	*	-	**	~	-	**	~	-	~	~	-	*	~
Canada	-	***	**	-	~	**	-	***	*	-	~	~	-	~	~
Cyprus	-	***	***	-	~	~	-	***	~	-	~	~	-	~	~
Czech Republic	-	~	*	-	~	~	-	~	~	-	~	~	-	~	~
Denmark	-	**	~	-	~	*	-	**	***	-	~	~	-	~	~
Dominican Republic	-	-	***	-	-	*	-	-	~	-	-	~	-	-	~
Finland	-	**	-	-	~	-	-	-	***	-	-	*	-	-	~
Flanders	-	-	~	-	-	~	-	-	~	-	-	~	-	-	~
France	-	***	***	-	*	***	-	***	***	-	~	~	-	~	~
Germany-East	-	~	~	-	~	~	-	~	~	-	~	~	-	~	~
Germany-West	***	~	**	~	~	~	**	**	***	*	~	~	*	~	~
Great Britain	**	**	*	***	*	~	***	~	~	~	***	*	~	***	*
Hungary	*	***	~	~	~	~	~	~	~	~	~	~	~	~	~
Ireland	***	-	**	***	-	***	*	-	***	~	-	~	~	-	~
Israel	~	**	**	~	~	*	**	~	~	~	~	~	~	~	~
Italy	*	~	-	~	~	-	~	~	-	~	***	-	~	~	-
Japan	-	***	*	-	~	~	-	~	~	-	~	~	-	~	~
Latvia	-	-	*	-	-	*	-	-	~	-	-	*	-	-	***
Mexico	-	-	**	-	-	~	-	-	*	-	-	~	-	-	~
Netherlands	*	-	-	***	-	-	***	-	-	**	-	-	*	-	-
New Zealand	-	~	~	-	*	***	-	~	***	-	~	***	-	~	*
Northern Ireland	***	-	-	~	-	-	~	-	-	~	-	-	~	-	-
Norway	~	***	*	***	***	~	*	***	***	~	~	~	~	~	~
Philippines	-	~	~	-	~	~	-	~	~	-	~	~	-	~	~
Poland	-	***	-	-	~	-	-	~	-	-	~	-	-	~	-
Portugal	-	**	**	-	~	***	-	~	~	-	*	~	-	*	*
Russia	-	***	***	-	~	~	-	~	**	-	~	~	-	~	~
Slovenia	-	***	***	-	*	~	-	*	~	-	~	~	-	~	~
Spain	-	-	~	-	-	~	-	-	**	-	-	~	-	-	~
South Africa	-	-	~	-	-	*	-	-	*	-	-	*	-	-	~
South Korea	-	-	*	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Sweden	-	~	~	-	~	***	-	***	***	-	~	~	-	*	~
Switzerland	-	***	*	-	**	~	-	***	*	-	***	~	-	*	*
Taiwan	-	-	***	-	-	~	-	-	***	-	-	~	-	-	~
United States	***	~	***	***	***	**	**	***	*	~	*	~	~	*	**
All	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	~	***	~	~	~	**

Level of significance: ~ = $p > .05$; * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$; *** = $p < .001$; - denotes data not available for given year;
Based on standardized OLS beta values

of the intrinsic and extrinsic job characteristics and control variables in predicting job satisfaction. Table 14 shows that “management/employee relations” is highly statistically significant (only second to “interesting work” in relation to beta coefficient strength comparisons within each country model) across all countries except the Philippines. “Coworker relations” was significant in only 11 of the 26 countries, while “job autonomy” was only significant in 8 of the 26 countries. “Interesting work” is statistically significant at the .001 level for all 26 countries, enjoying consistently the highest overall standardized beta coefficients across each country. “Job security” is significant in 13 of 26 countries, while “pay” is significant in 15 of the 26 countries. “Promotional opportunities” is statistically significant in 8 of the 26 countries, while “workload” is significant in 11 of the 26 countries. “Physical effort” is only significant in Portugal, Switzerland, Great Britain, the U.S.A., and Italy, while “danger” is only statistically significant in 8 of the 26 countries.

Furthermore, as was the case in both 1989 and 1997, there is a great deal of variation between countries in standardized beta coefficient statistical significance for each of the intrinsic and extrinsic job characteristics and control variables in predicting job satisfaction. Table 14 shows that “management/employee relations is statistically significant in each of the 32 countries except East Germany, the Philippines, and Switzerland. Additionally, “coworker relations” is significant in 18 of the 32 nations, while “job autonomy” is significant in just 8 of the 32 nations. Contrastingly, “interesting work” is highly significant (0.001 level) and enjoys consistently the highest overall standardized beta coefficients (when comparing within each country model) across each country except Cyprus (in which it is not a significant factor in predicting job

satisfaction). “Job security” is statistically significant in 12 of the 32 countries, while “pay” is significant in 23 of the 32 countries. “Promotional opportunities” is significant in 23 of the 32 countries, while workload is significant in 17 of the 32 countries. Finally, “physical effort” and “danger” are both statistically significant in just 6 of the 32 nations.

Table 15 shows OLS regression model specifications for each country across the three waves of the study. It is interesting to note the difference in model predictability from country to country and from year to year. In 1989, West Germany has the highest adjusted r -squared (0.4991), while Hungary has the lowest (0.2232). Israel (0.2665) and Austria (0.3028) also each have relatively lower adjusted r -squared statistics, with the remainder of the countries falling somewhere from 0.38 to 0.46. In 1997, Canada (0.4874) and Great Britain (0.4809) have the highest adjusted r -squared values, while the Philippines has the lowest adjusted r -squared (0.1686). Portugal, the Czech Republic, Hungary, and Bulgaria, each have relatively lower adjusted r -squared values, ranging from 0.2784 to 0.3395, respectively. The remaining 19 countries have adjusted r -squared values ranging from 0.3615 to 0.4798. In 2005, Cyprus had far and away the highest (0.6866), followed by France (0.5701) and Australia (0.5293). Flanders (Belgium) and the Philippines each had by far the lowest adjusted r -squared values, at 0.1753 and 0.1896, respectively. The Dominican Republic (0.2339), Hungary (0.2355), and Mexico (0.2579) also had among the lowest adjusted r -squared values among the 32 countries. The remaining 26 countries have adjusted r -squared values somewhere between 0.2873 and 0.4961, with the vast majority at the higher end.

Table 15: Summary of OLS Model Specifications, by Country and Year

Country	1989			1997			2005		
	N	Adj. R-Squ.	F	N	Adj. R-Squ.	F	N	Adj. R-Squ.	F
Australia	-	-	-	-	-	-	1012	0.5293	60.83***
Austria	771	0.3028	18.6***	-	-	-	-	-	-
Bangladesh	-	-	-	372	0.3791	12.92***	-	-	-
Bulgaria	-	-	-	391	0.3395	11.55***	414	0.2873	9.76***
Canada	-	-	-	423	0.4874	22.12***	459	0.4800	23.25***
Cyprus	-	-	-	454	0.4768	22.73***	481	0.6866	56.34***
Czech Republic	-	-	-	473	0.2851	10.9***	557	0.3911	19.79***
Denmark	-	-	-	602	0.3692	19.52***	793	0.4336	32.91***
Dominican Republic	-	-	-	-	-	-	606	0.2339	10.72***
Finland	-	-	-	-	-	-	539	0.4961	28.87***
Flanders	-	-	-	-	-	-	676	0.1753	8.55***
France	-	-	-	585	0.4798	29.35***	859	0.5701	60.88***
Germany-East	-	-	-	187	0.4617	9.4***	232	0.4020	9.17***
Germany-West	508	0.4991	27.58***	514	0.426	21.04***	440	0.4168	17.51***
Great Britain	626	0.4292	27.11***	483	0.4809	24.51***	394	0.4716	19.46***
Hungary	519	0.2232	9.27***	555	0.3127	14.27***	407	0.2355	7.58***
Ireland	410	0.4444	18.22***	-	-	-	468	0.4609	22.01***
Israel	544	0.2665	11.96***	381	0.3800	13.94***	470	0.4189	18.8***
Italy	473	0.3899	16.88***	375	0.3783	12.98***	-	-	-
Japan	-	-	-	482	0.3615	16.13***	379	0.3331	11.49***
Latvia	-	-	-	-	-	-	530	0.4521	23.98***
Mexico	-	-	-	-	-	-	454	0.2579	9.28***
Netherlands	570	0.4654	28.52***	-	-	-	-	-	-
New Zealand	-	-	-	248	0.4488	11.58***	750	0.4842	38.00***
Northern Ireland	293	0.4062	12.10***	-	-	-	-	-	-
Norway	861	0.4527	42.84***	1121	0.4375	46.86***	737	0.4677	35.04***
Philippines	-	-	-	457	0.1686	5.87***	555	0.1896	7.82***
Poland	-	-	-	347	0.4531	16.09***	-	-	-
Portugal	-	-	-	761	0.2784	16.43***	923	0.3505	27.19***
Russia	-	-	-	619	0.3871	21.54***	753	0.3336	20.82***
Slovenia	-	-	-	429	0.4334	19.19***	433	0.4259	17.87***
Spain	-	-	-	-	-	-	480	0.3743	16.08***
South Africa	-	-	-	-	-	-	665	0.4608	30.87***
South Korea	-	-	-	-	-	-	491	0.3176	13.67***
Sweden	-	-	-	678	0.453	32.15***	734	0.4800	38.59***
Switzerland	-	-	-	1425	0.4497	62.25***	612	0.3645	19.44***
Taiwan	-	-	-	-	-	-	990	0.3575	29.96***
United States	747	0.463	34.85***	722	0.4402	30.84***	941	0.4272	37.89***
All	6,322	0.3833	207.79***	13,248	0.3870	441.09***	19,234	0.3915	652.33***

Level of significance: *** = $p < .001$; - denotes data not available for given year

Results for third wave

The simplest possible hierarchical linear model is equivalent to a one-way ANOVA with random effects (see Raudenbush & Bryck, 2002). Table 16 shows varying ANOVA adjusted *r*-squared values for each of the main study variables' differences by country, from 0.0238 for "job security" to 0.1215 for "job autonomy." Additionally, in each case, the *F*-statistic is significant ($p < .001$ level), indicating that there is a significant difference in each of the main study variables across the countries in the 2005 wave of the study.⁴

Furthermore, Table 17 presents the regression results for the differing fixed effects, random effects, empty, and ANOVA models of the main relationships between each independent variable and job satisfaction, after taking country variances into account.⁵

Table 16: ANOVA Results of Study Variable Differences by Country

Variable	Adjusted R-square	F
Job Satisfaction	0.0415	33.45***
Management/Employee Relations	0.0428	32.47***
Coworker Relations	0.0396	29.82***
Job Autonomy	0.1215	104.34***
Interesting Work	0.0700	57.38***
Job Security	0.0238	19.12***
Pay	0.0427	34.30***
Promotional Opportunities	0.0538	42.67***
Workload	0.0251	20.30***
Physical Effort	0.0283	22.82***
Danger	0.0255	20.53***

Level of significance: *** = $p < .001$

⁴ Similar ANOVA results for the first two waves of the study are also available upon request.

⁵ Additional fixed effects and random effects analysis is also available upon request.

Table 17: Regression Results of Study Variables on Job Satisfaction,
by Country, 2005

Variable	Fixed Effects Model	Random Effects Model	Mixed Level (empty)	ANOVA
Management/Employee Relations	0.321***	0.323***	0.322***	308.74***
Coworker Relations	0.146***	0.144***	0.145***	53.61***
Job Autonomy	0.045***	0.044***	0.044***	11.19***
Interesting Work	0.374***	0.374***	0.374***	517.14***
Job Security	0.071***	0.071***	0.071***	31.24***
Pay	0.104***	0.104***	0.104***	55.57***
Promotional Opportunities	0.071***	0.072***	0.071***	23.27***
Workload	-0.106***	-0.105***	-0.105***	41.07***
Physical Effort	0.010	0.010	0.010	2.84*
Danger	-0.018**	-0.018**	-0.018**	2.56*
Full-Time/Part-Time	0.070**	0.077***	0.074***	8.31**
Self Employed	-0.008	-0.010	-0.009	0.40
Gender	0.051***	0.051***	0.051***	14.95***
Age	0.005***	0.005***	0.005***	1.99***
Years of Education	-0.012***	-0.013***	-0.012***	1.99***
Widowed	0.118*	0.121**	0.120*	5.4*
Divorced	-0.028	-0.028	-0.028	1.32
Separated	-0.038	-0.035	-0.036	0.55
Single	-0.067***	-0.068***	-0.068***	11.46***
R-square				
within	0.3769	0.3769	NA	NA
between	0.7121	0.716	NA	NA
overall	0.3917	0.3918	NA	0.4112
F /LR chi2/Wald chi2	610.74***	11721.93***	11681.48***	83.58***

Level of significance: * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$; *** = $p < .001$; N (Total Observations) = 19,234; N (Groups) = 32

A significant linear relationship between the country variable and each of the key independent variables is found. The respondent country appears to account for a small part of the explained variance in the relationships. After adjusting for country differences, a significant relationship is found between job satisfaction and each of its antecedents.

Finally, Table 18 presents the results by model. The first empty model simply looks at job satisfaction based on country. Model 2 regresses job satisfaction on the level-1 individual control variables, examines how much variance in job satisfaction is accounted for by the control variables, while examining the impact that the level-2 factor (country) has on job satisfaction. The next two analyses (models 3 and 4) pertain to the separate analysis of the level-1 intrinsic and extrinsic job characteristics independent variables, and involve regressing each of these factors on job satisfaction and the control variables, while examining the impact that the level-2 factor (country) has on job satisfaction. Model 5 jointly examines the influences of all the level-1 independent variables (both extrinsic and intrinsic) and control variables on job satisfaction, while also examining the impact that the level-2 factor (country) has on job satisfaction.

Models 6-12 introduce additional level-2 covariates, while including all the level-1 independent variables (both extrinsic and intrinsic) and control variables. Model 6 includes one additional level-2 covariate, service sector as a percentage of total economy. Model 7 provides a multilevel analysis using the semiperiphery/core country classification dummy variable. Model 8 includes five level-2 covariates, economic freedom, rigidity of employment, human development index, the democratization index, and cohesive-capitalist country classification dummy variable. Model 9 includes government expenditures as a percentage of GDP, government revenues as a percentage

Table 18: Results of Study Variables on Job Satisfaction, 2005

Level 1: Fixed Effects	Model 1 (Empty)	Model 2 (Individual Controls)	Model 3 (Extrinsic)	Model 4 (Intrinsic)	Model 5 (Combined)
Intercept	5.269***	4.709***	3.967***	1.216***	1.401***
Full-Time/Part-Time		0.285***	0.238***	0.0624**	0.074***
Self Employed		-0.023	0.034	-0.029	-0.009
Gender		0.008	0.072***	0.007	0.051***
Age		0.006***	0.007***	0.004***	0.005***
Years of Education		0.026***	-0.000	-0.005**	-0.012***
Widowed		0.054	0.082	0.109*	0.120*
Divorced		-0.126***	-0.049	-0.060*	-0.028
Separated		-0.062	0.039	-0.087*	-0.036
Single		-0.123***	-0.098***	-0.072***	-0.068***
Job Security			0.145***		0.071***
Pay			0.172***		0.104***
Promotional Opportunities			0.205***		0.071***
Workload			-0.153***		-0.105***
Physical Effort			-0.006		0.010
Danger			-0.036***		-0.018**
Management/Employee Relations				0.371***	0.322***
Coworker Relations				0.152***	0.145***
Job Autonomy				0.069***	0.044***
Interesting Work				0.433***	0.374***

Table 18 Continued.

Level 2: Random					
Effects	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5
Intercept	0.254*	0.263*	0.209*	0.133*	0.131*
% Service Sector					
Semi-Periphery/Core					
Economic Freedom					
Rigidity of Employment					
Human Development Index					
Democratization Index					
Cohesive-capitalist					
Gov. Exp. as % of GDP					
Gov. Rev. as % of GDP					
Public Debt as % of GDP					
Gini Inequality					
Power Distance					
Individual Collectivism					
Masculine/Feminine					
Uncertainty Avoidance					
Long-term/Short-Term Orientation					
Residual	1.179	1.163	1.066	0.943	0.919
Model Specifications/Fit Statistics					
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5
Wald Chi2	NA	454.49***	4477.53***	10518.12***	11681.48***
LR Test	876.49***	894.55***	625.36***	243.79***	245.81***
AIC	73697.67	69147.1	62393.63	54409.76	51597.37
BIC	73721.83	69243.07	62536.74	54536.16	51770.39

Coefficient/estimate values; Level of significance: * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$; *** = $p < .001$

Table 18 continued.

Level 1: Fixed Effects	Model 6 (Post/Neo Fordist)	Model 7 (World Systems)	Model 8 (Statist)	Model 9 (Welfare State)	Model 10 (Culture)	Model 11 (Expectations)	Model 12 (Combined)
Intercept	1.403***	1.366***	1.412***	1.404***	1.398***	1.372***	1.392***
Full-Time/Part-Time	0.074***	0.072**	0.074***	0.073**	0.073**	-0.010	0.008
Self Employed	-0.009	-0.010	-0.009	-0.009	-0.009	0.072**	0.071**
Gender	0.051***	0.051***	0.051***	0.051***	0.051***	0.051***	0.051***
Age	0.005***	0.005***	0.005***	0.005***	0.005***	0.005***	0.005***
Years of Education	-0.012***	-0.012***	-0.012***	-0.012***	-0.012***	-0.012***	-0.012***
Widowed	0.120**	0.119*	0.120*	0.119*	0.120*	0.120*	0.120*
Divorced	-0.028	-0.028	-0.028	-0.028	-0.028	-0.028	-0.028
Separated	-0.036	-0.036	-0.037	-0.037	-0.036	-0.036	-0.038
Single	-0.068***	-0.068***	-0.068***	-0.068***	-0.068***	-0.067***	-0.067***
Job Security	0.071***	0.071***	0.071***	0.071***	0.071***	0.071***	0.071***
Pay	0.104***	0.104***	0.104***	0.104***	0.104***	0.104***	0.104***
Promotional Opportunities	0.071***	0.071***	0.071***	0.071***	0.071***	0.071***	0.071***
Workload	-0.105***	-0.105***	-0.105***	-0.105***	-0.105***	-0.105***	-0.106***
Physical Effort	0.010	0.010	0.010	0.010	0.010	0.010	0.010
Danger	-0.018**	-0.018**	-0.018**	-0.018**	-0.018**	-0.018*	-0.018**
Management/Employee Relations	0.322***	0.322***	0.322***	0.322***	0.322***	0.322***	0.321***
Coworker Relations	0.145***	0.145***	0.145***	0.145***	0.145***	0.145***	0.146***
Job Autonomy	0.044***	0.044***	0.044***	0.044***	0.044***	0.044***	0.044***
Interesting Work	0.374***	0.374***	0.374***	0.374***	0.374***	0.374***	0.374***

Table 18 continued.

Level 2: Random Effects	Model 6	Model 7	Model 8	Model 9	Model 10	Model 11	Model 12
Intercept	0.058*	.091*	0.069*	0.062*	0.056*	0.078*	0.063*
% Service Sector	0.002						0.001
Semi-Periphery/Core		.179*					0.127*
Economic Freedom			0.022				0.023
Rigidity of Employment			0.002				0.002
Human Development Index			0.001				0.001
Democratization Index			0.007				0.008
Coercive-Capitalist			0.189*				0.229*
Gov. Exp. as % of GDP				0.001			0.002
Gov. Rev. as % of GDP				0.001			0.002
Public Debt as % of GDP				0.001			0.001
Gini Inequality				0.003			0.002
Power Distance							0.012
Individual Collectivism							0.013
Masculine/Feminine							0.018

Table 18 continued.

Level 2: Random Effects	Model 6	Model 7	Model 8	Model 9	Model 10	Model 11	Model 12
Uncertainty Avoidance					0.012		0.015
Long-term/Short-Term Orientation					0.013		0.016
Change in GDP						0.000	0.000
Change in Unemployment						0.002	0.001
Residual	0.919	0.919	0.919	0.919	0.919	0.919	0.919
Model Specifications/Fit Statistics							
Wald Chi2	11686.60***	11714.19***	11665.59***	11673.03***	11675.02***	11690.48***	11634.96***
LR Test	246.12***	251.95***	242.09***	246.15***	246.16***	249.68***	224.97***
AIC	51599.06	51593.23	51597.09	51593.03	51593.02	51593.01	51610.48
BIC	51779.94	51774.11	51754.38	51750.32	51750.31	51750.3	51767.77

Coefficient/estimate values, followed by standard error values in parentheses; ~Estimates are based on iterated EM and do not have standard error values; Level of significance: * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$; *** = $p < .001$

of GDP, public debt as a percentage of GDP, and the Gini economic inequality coefficient. Model 10 includes five level-2 cross-cultural variables: power distance, individual collectivism, masculine/feminine uncertainty avoidance, and long-term/short-term orientation.

Model 11 includes two variables to measure the expectation of workers: change in GDP and change in unemployment rate. Finally, Model 12 includes all of the level 2 covariates. In each model, significant Wald Chi2 and LR Test results indicate that the level-2 country differentiation models are significant improvements on the level-1 models. Additionally, the AIC and BIC model fit statistics indicate a good fit in each of the specified models. However, only the estimate values for the semiperiphery/core and cohesive-capitalist/fragmented multiclass state country designation dummy variables were statistically significant at the $p < .05$ level, with the other level-two covariates not reaching that level of significance.¹ Variable coefficient and estimate values will be discussed further in the appropriate hypothesis testing subsection.

Testing hypotheses

Examining cross-national differences in the levels of job satisfaction and its determinants is fundamental to this research endeavor, as there is the likelihood that national work context can impact the workplace and the nature of work, which can in turn affect job satisfaction. Therefore, the levels of job satisfaction and the determinants of job satisfaction for the respondents from the 32 countries are expected to differ cross-nationally, resulting in the following hypothesis:

¹ Level-1 and level-2 variable coefficients/estimates can be interpreted the same as OLS regression coefficients.

H1a: There are statistically significant cross-national differences in the levels of job satisfaction across countries.

H1b: There are statistically significant cross-national differences in the determinants of job satisfaction across countries.

As was reported earlier, Tables 6-8 and separate ANOVA and ANCOVA mean comparison tests across countries show that there are statistically significant differences in mean scores for job satisfaction and its main determinants across the countries included in each of the three waves of data analysis for this project. Once more, the statistically significant country differences become larger from wave to wave, as more countries are included in the analysis and a broader range in types of countries provides a greater basis for statistical comparison. Furthermore, Tables 14 and 15 (as well as more detailed country-specific OLS regression models available in Appendix F) demonstrate a significant level of cross-national differences in job satisfaction and its determinants. Additionally, hierarchical linear modeling has been utilized with the 32 countries in the 2005 wave to show a clear nested country effect on job satisfaction, holding all other job characteristics and personal respondent characteristics constant. Therefore, H1a and H1b are fully supported by these results and there are statistically significant cross-national differences in the levels of job satisfaction and the determinants of job satisfaction.

Now that it has been demonstrated that the country in which one works has a significant impact on job satisfaction and its determinants, it is important to understand what country-level contextual factors account for this nested country effect on job satisfaction. The following four subsections will examine the empirical results related to each of four theoretical perspectives and their corresponding hypotheses in order to test

which country-level contextual factors play an important role in accounting for the country differences seen in job satisfaction and its determinants cross-nationally.

Post/Neo-Fordist theories

H2a: In countries with more dominant service sector economies, intrinsic work characteristics and work relationships will be most salient to workers and provide the most predictability in overall perceived job satisfaction.

H2b: In countries with less dominant service sector economies (larger industrial sector), extrinsic work characteristics will be most salient to workers and provide the most predictability in overall perceived job satisfaction.

Among the various explanations for why and how job satisfaction and its work determinants can differ cross-nationally, one such possible explanation is embodied in the Post-Fordist/Neo-Fordist paradigms. Post-Fordism emphasizes a deindustrialization in the economy, with workplace outcomes most closely linked with service-sector businesses and intrinsic workplace characteristics (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982; Hirst & Zeitlin, 1991; Priore & Sabel, 1984), while the Neo-Fordist framework maintains the basic principles of the traditional firm held by Fordism, with workplace outcomes most closely linked with industrial-sector businesses and extrinsic workplace characteristics (Handel, 2005; Harrison, 1994). To examine whether or not sectoral composition would thus impact the relative saliency of either intrinsic or extrinsic work characteristics on worker satisfaction, data on the service sector as a percentage of the total economy were compiled for each of the 32 nations in wave three and included as level two factors in a model. The results in model 6 and model 12 in Table 18 show that the percentage of

service sector in a given country does not have a statistically insignificant impact on worker satisfaction, while controlling for all level-1 independent variables. Thus, this result provides no evidence supporting either H5a or H5b.

However, to explore the impact of sectoral composition in greater detail, dummy variables were also created (based on overall sample means) to designate whether a country had a high (>65%) or low level (<65%) of service sector economy (GDP composition by sector), as well as a high (>30%) or low (<30%) level of industrial sector economy (relative to the 32 countries in the wave). Then mean scores for the main study variables and OLS regression models were run for each sample (high/low service sector nations and high/low industrial sector nations) to allow for comparison of intrinsic and extrinsic work characteristics and their ability to predict job satisfaction. These results are presented in Tables 19 and 20.

Table 19 shows the comparative mean score of main study variables by percentage level of service and industrial sector of the economy. There is very little difference between mean job satisfaction and job characteristics scores for countries that have a relatively higher level of service or industrial sector.

Furthermore, Table 20 shows OLS regression results by level of service/industrial sector of the economy.² It is noteworthy that overall model fit and predictability of job satisfaction levels is much higher for high service sector/low industrial sector countries and than their low service sector/high industrial sector counterparts. It is also noteworthy that each of the intrinsic factors (“management/employee relations,” “coworker relations,” “job autonomy,” and “interesting work” have stronger standardized beta

² While these are somewhat redundant analyses, as the agricultural sector does differ across countries, they are not merely reciprocals of each other.

Table 19: Comparative Mean Scores of Main Study Variables,
by Level of Service/Industrial Sector Economy, 2005

Variable	% Service Sector		% Industrial Sector	
	High	Low	High	Low
Job Satisfaction	5.24	5.28	5.24	5.26
Management/Employee Relations	3.85	3.93	3.91	3.83
Coworker Relations	4.16	4.18	4.18	4.16
Job Autonomy	3.82	3.68	3.77	3.80
Interesting Work	3.81	3.79	3.75	3.86
Job Security	3.62	3.58	3.56	3.66
Pay	2.72	2.77	2.71	2.74
Promotional Opportunities	2.67	2.80	2.72	2.66
Workload	3.32	3.35	3.36	3.29
Physical Effort	2.52	2.54	2.55	2.48
Danger	2.06	2.11	2.12	2.03

coefficients in the high service/low industrial sector countries (all are highly significant in each country). Once more, the extrinsic factors, with the exception of “job security” (“pay,” “promotional opportunities,” “workload,” “physical effort,” and “danger”) have slightly stronger standardized beta coefficients in the low service/high industrial sector countries (all are highly significant in each country except “physical effort” and “danger”) and the extrinsic factor, “danger,” is only significant in the low service/high industrial sector countries.

Thus, based on comparative OLS regression results of job satisfaction and its determinants by high/low percentage of service sector and industrial sector, there is support for H2a and H2b. In countries with more dominant service sector economies, intrinsic work characteristics do provide greater overall predictability in overall perceived job satisfaction and have greater standardized beta coefficients than their extrinsic counterparts, with larger coefficients than the intrinsic coefficients in the countries with a

Table 20: OLS Regression Results of Study Variables on Job Satisfaction,
by Level of Service/Industrial Sector Economy, 2005

Variable	% Service Sector		% Industrial Sector	
	High	Low	High	Low
Management/Employee Relations	0.285***	0.207***	0.303***	0.331***
Coworker Relations	0.084***	0.098***	0.030***	0.040***
Job Autonomy	0.041***	0.027*	0.247***	0.277***
Interesting Work	0.324***	0.287***	0.082***	0.104***
Job Security	0.070***	0.063***	0.077***	0.062***
Pay	0.075***	0.123***	0.096***	0.079***
Promotional Opportunities	0.066***	0.069***	0.065***	0.070***
Workload	-0.090***	-0.057***	-0.079***	-0.083***
Physical Effort	0.016	-0.011	0.000	0.016
Danger	-0.011	-0.028*	-0.019*	-0.017
Full-Time/Part-Time	-0.012	0.001	0.025	0.040
Self Employed	0.032***	0.027**	-0.010**	0.002***
Gender	0.021**	0.017	0.027***	0.001
Age	0.033***	0.049***	0.047***	0.024*
Years of Education	-0.051***	-0.036***	-0.034***	-0.075***
Widowed	0.003	0.033***	0.023**	0.002
Divorced	-0.006	-0.007	0.000	-0.008
Separated	0.003	-0.010	-0.008	0.005
Single	-0.022**	-0.041***	-0.033***	-0.018
<i>N</i>	12215	7019	10698	7930
Adjusted R-square	0.4186	0.3494	0.3814	0.4259
<i>F</i>	463.87***	199.4***	348.05***	310.55***

Level of significance: * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$; *** = $p < .001$; Beta Values

lower level of service sector and greater level of industrial sector (GDP composition by sector). Once more, in countries with less dominant service sector economies (relatively larger industrial sector), extrinsic work characteristics have greater standardized beta coefficients than the extrinsic coefficients in the countries with a higher level of service sector and lower level of industrial sector. However, the results clearly show that in each case (regardless of service/industrial sector levels), intrinsic work characteristics add the most overall predictability to perceived job satisfaction of workers within those countries. Thus, workers' degree of satisfaction with their jobs seem more closely related to how interesting it is and the level of autonomy they have in doing their work, in addition to the quality of workplace relationships, rather than to job security, pay, promotional opportunities, workload, physical effort, and danger.

To get a clearer picture as to the full impact of countries' economic relative sectoral composition (from a Post/Neo-Fordist perspective) has on differences in perceived job characteristics and worker satisfaction, future research needs to examine a greater number and wider variety of countries, while exploring other theoretically relevant country-level variables that may help to explore country level differences from a Post/Neo-Fordist perspective. Additionally, a more diverse and greater number of participating countries would also potentially help in achieving levels of significance in the level-2 covariates in the models.

World systems theories

- H3: Workers in the semiperiphery of the economic world system will experience worse overall job quality and lower perceived job satisfaction than workers in the core.

H4a: For nations in the semiperiphery of the economic world system, extrinsic work rewards and other workplace conditions will be most salient to workers and will have a larger influence on perceived job satisfaction than intrinsic qualities of the jobs.

H4b: For nations in the core of the economic world system, intrinsic rewards and workplace relations will be more salient to workers and will be more closely related to overall perceived job satisfaction than extrinsic characteristics of the job.

Another theory that provides some possible explanations for why and how job satisfaction and its work determinants can differ cross-nationally is world-system theory, which argues that there is a center of wealthy states and a periphery of poor, underdeveloped states, and resources are extracted from the periphery and flow towards the states (through the semiperiphery nations) at the center of the world system in order to sustain the core's economic growth and wealth (Acemoglu, 2002; Modelski & Thompson, 1995; Wallerstein, 1974; 2000). Scholars have shown that extrinsic rewards and working conditions have been reported to be worse in the periphery and semiperiphery compared to that in the core nations (Benner, 2002; Dowling & Welch, 2008; Lee, 1997; Mendenhall et al., 2007; Munck, 2002; Perrucci & Perrucci, 2007; Sweet & Meiksins, 2008). In order to examine whether a country's structural location place in the hierarchical world economic influences the relative saliency of either intrinsic or extrinsic work characteristics on worker satisfaction, I compiled country-level economic indicators for each of the 32 nations in wave three and included them as level two factors in a model. The results in model 7 and model 12 in Table 18 show that

whether a country is in the semiperiphery or core of the economic world system does have a significant impact on worker satisfaction, while controlling for all level-1 independent variables. Thus, this result provides evidence supporting H4a and H4b.

Furthermore, in order to explore the impact of position in the world system on job satisfaction in greater detail, a dummy variable was also created to designate whether a country was either in the semiperiphery or core of the economic world system (designations based on Wallerstein's 1976 and 1997 classifications—there are no clear periphery countries among the 32 countries in the 2005 wave)³. Then mean scores for the main study variables and OLS regression models were run for each sample (semi-periphery/core) to allow for comparison of intrinsic and extrinsic work characteristics and their ability to predict job satisfaction. These results are presented in Tables 21 and 22. Table 21 shows the comparative mean score of main study variables by semi-periphery/core classifications. There is virtually no difference in overall mean job satisfaction scores and “management/employee relations” scores for countries in the semiperiphery versus the core of the economic world system. However, there are significant differences between the mean scores of other intrinsic and extrinsic job characteristics. For example, mean scores for other intrinsic characteristics (“coworker relations” and “interesting work”) are significantly higher in countries in the global semiperiphery. While there is virtually no difference in “job security” and “pay” between the different categories of countries, mean scores of other extrinsic characteristics (perceived

³ Furthermore, the developed or undeveloped/developing country classification (based on International Monetary Fund's World Economic Outlook Report classifications and UN human development index classifications) is very similar to Wallerstein's classifications and could also be used as a basis for this comparison.

Table 21: Comparative Mean Scores of Main Study Variables,
by Semiperiphery/Core, 2005

Variable	Core	Semiperiphery
Job Satisfaction	5.25	5.26
Management/Employee Relations	3.88	3.87
Coworker Relations	4.21	4.07
Job Autonomy	3.88	3.48
Interesting Work	3.87	3.63
Job Security	3.62	3.58
Pay	2.74	2.73
Promotional Opportunities	2.69	2.79
Workload	3.29	3.42
Physical Effort	2.46	2.70
Danger	2.01	2.27

“workload,” “physical effort,” and “danger”) are significantly higher in countries in the global semiperiphery than they are in countries in the core.

Furthermore, Table 22 shows OLS job satisfaction regression results by country designation (core versus semiperiphery). It is noteworthy that overall model fit and predictability of job satisfaction levels is much higher for countries in the core, as compared to their semiperiphery counterparts. It is also noteworthy that each of the intrinsic factors (“management/employee relations,” “coworker relations,” “job autonomy,” and “interesting work”) has stronger standardized beta coefficients in core countries (all are highly significant in each country). Once more, the extrinsic factors of “job security,” “pay,” and “physical effort” have stronger standardized beta coefficients for countries of the semiperiphery, with core countries having slightly higher standardized beta coefficients for “promotional opportunities,” “workload,” and “danger.”

Table 22: OLS Regression Results of Study Variables on Job Satisfaction,
by Core/Semiperiphery Classification

Variable	Core	Semiperiphery
Management/Employee Relations	0.264***	0.234***
Coworker Relations	0.108***	0.054***
Job Autonomy	0.045***	0.038**
Interesting Work	0.336***	0.251***
Job Security	0.060***	0.085***
Pay	0.087***	0.114***
Promotional Opportunities	0.072***	0.047***
Workload	-0.091***	-0.046***
Physical Effort	0.030***	-0.048***
Danger	-0.023**	-0.016
Full-Time/Part-Time	0.005	-0.029*
Self Employed	0.01	0.053***
Gender	0.014*	0.023
Age	0.042***	0.046***
Years of Education	-0.051***	-0.017
Widowed	0.009	0.015
Divorced	-0.004	-0.018
Separated	-0.003	-0.002
Single	-0.028***	-0.025
<i>N</i>	13813	5421
Adjusted R-square	0.4308	0.3315
<i>F</i>	551.12***	142.49***

Level of significance: * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$; *** = $p < .001$; Beta Values

Thus, there is mixed support for H3, H4a, and H4b. In relation to H3 specifically, there is virtually no difference in perceived job satisfaction levels between core countries and their semiperiphery counterparts. However, there are significant differences between the mean scores of other intrinsic and extrinsic job characteristics (e.g., “coworker relations,” “coworker relations,” and “interesting work” are significantly higher in core countries than in countries in the global semiperiphery, while perceived “workload,” “physical effort,” and “danger” are significantly higher in the countries in the global semiperiphery than they are in countries in the core). In relation to H4a and H4b specifically, based on comparative OLS regression results of job satisfaction and its determinants by semiperiphery/core classification, there is support for H4a and H4b. In core countries, intrinsic work characteristics do provide greater overall predictability in overall perceived job satisfaction and have greater standardized beta coefficients than their extrinsic counterparts, with greater coefficients than the intrinsic coefficients in the semiperiphery countries. Once more, in semiperiphery countries, “job security,” “pay,” and “physical effort” each have greater standardized beta coefficients than the extrinsic coefficients in the core countries. However, the results clearly show that in each case (regardless of country classification), intrinsic work characteristics add the most overall predictability to perceived job satisfaction of workers within those countries.

To get a clearer picture as to the full impact that the relative position within the world-system has on differences in perceived job characteristics and worker satisfaction, future research needs to examine a greater number and wider variety of countries, including periphery countries, while exploring other theoretically relevant country-level variables that may help to explore country level differences from a world-system

perspective. Additionally, a more diverse and greater number of participating countries would also potentially help in achieving levels of significance in the level-2 covariates in the models.

State directed development

H5: Workers in cohesive-capitalist states will experience worse overall job quality and perceived job satisfaction than workers in fragmented multi-class states.

H6a: Job satisfaction is more closely linked to extrinsic workplace rewards and other workplace conditions for workers in cohesive-capitalist states.

H6b: Job satisfaction is more closely linked to intrinsic workplace rewards and workplace relationships for workers in fragmented multiclass states.

Among the various explanations for why and how job satisfaction and its work determinants can differ cross-nationally, another possible explanation is embodied in the statist perspective (exploring the role of the state as an autonomous actor within a globalized economy, directly influencing country-level contextual business related facets conditions that can impact workers' satisfaction levels and the determinants; see Gilpin, 2001; Kohli, 2004; Meyer et al., 1997). As extrinsic rewards and working conditions have been reported to be worse in states Kohli (2004) classifies as cohesive-capitalist, as compared to those same conditions in fragmented multiclass states, in order to examine whether the extent to which states control country-level contextual business related facets would impact the relative saliency of either intrinsic or extrinsic work characteristics on worker satisfaction, country-level indicators were compiled for each of the 32 nations in

wave three and included as level two factors in a model. The results in model 8 and model 12 in Table 18 show that whether a country is what Kohli (2004) would classify as a cohesive-capitalist or a fragmented multiclass state does have a significant impact on worker satisfaction, while controlling for all level-1 independent variables.⁴ Thus, this result provides evidence supporting H6a and H6b. However, other suggested empirical measures exploring the role of the state as an autonomous actor within a globalized economy (economic freedom index, rigidity of employment index, human development index, and democratization index) do not have statistically insignificant impacts on worker satisfaction, while controlling for all level-1 independent variables. Thus, these results provide no evidence for H6a and H6b.

However, in order to explore the impact of state policies and regime type on job satisfaction in greater detail, dummy variables were also created for those country-level contextual variables related to these statist hypotheses, including (1) high/low scores on the economic freedom index, (2) high/low scores on the rigidity of employment index, (3) high/low scores on the human development index, and (4) high/low scores on the democratization index (see Gilpin, 2001; Kohli, 2004; Meyer et al., 1997 for further justification of these measures; see Appendix A for additional variable details). Then mean scores for main study variables and OLS regression models were run for each sample to allow for comparison of intrinsic and extrinsic work characteristics and their ability to predict job satisfaction. These results are presented in Tables 23-25.

⁴ While there are often similarities between countries that would be considered to be in the semiperiphery of the world system and those countries Kohli (2004) would classify as cohesive-capitalist states, these two classifications do not always overlap. For example, many semiperiphery nations would not be considered cohesive-capitalist states. Additionally, as the two different classifications fit with different theoretical arguments, it is useful to utilize both in these analyses.

Table 23 shows the comparative mean score of main study variables by the different statist-oriented country-level contextual variables and cohesive-capitalist state/fragmented multiclass state classifications. There is a significant difference in overall mean job satisfaction scores when comparing by high/low economic index scores, human development index scores, and cohesive-capitalist versus fragmented multi-class states classification, with countries with relatively higher levels of economic freedom and human development scores experiencing much higher job satisfaction scores than those countries with low scores on those two indices. There is little difference in job satisfaction when comparing by high/low levels of rigidity of employment index and democracy index scores. “Management/employee relations” and “coworker relations” mean scores varied little across the different dummy variable comparisons. However, “job autonomy” mean scores were significantly level in cohesive-capitalist states and in

Table 23 Comparative Mean Scores of Main Study Variables, by Dummy Indices, 2005

Variable	Economic Freedom		Rigidity of Employment		Human Development		Democratization	
	High	Low	High	Low	High	Low	High	Low
Job Satisfaction	5.32	5.19	5.23	5.28	5.30	5.13	5.25	5.26
Management/Employee Relations	3.90	3.86	3.85	3.91	3.88	3.86	3.86	3.92
Coworker Relations	4.22	4.11	4.14	4.21	4.23	4.07	4.20	4.12
Job Autonomy	3.97	3.56	3.67	3.88	3.91	3.54	3.89	3.54
Interesting Work	3.89	3.71	3.76	3.85	3.92	3.61	3.89	3.65
Job Security	3.66	3.55	3.58	3.64	3.66	3.52	3.62	3.58
Pay	2.79	2.68	2.69	2.79	2.75	2.72	2.70	2.82
Promotional Opportunities	2.72	2.73	2.74	2.70	2.66	2.78	2.67	2.82
Workload	3.26	3.41	3.36	3.29	3.28	3.40	3.31	3.38
Physical Effort	2.45	2.61	2.59	2.46	2.43	2.67	2.48	2.62
Danger	2.00	2.17	2.14	2.02	1.99	2.22	2.03	2.19

Table 24: OLS Regression Results of Study Variables on Job Satisfaction, by Economic Freedom and Rigidity of Employment Indices

Variable	Economic Freedom		Rigidity of Employment	
	High	Low	High	Low
Management/Employee Relations	0.269***	0.251***	0.243***	0.276***
Coworker Relations	0.105***	0.070***	0.078***	0.099***
Job Autonomy	0.027***	0.043***	0.038***	0.035***
Interesting Work	0.344***	0.278***	0.293***	0.328***
Job Security	0.067***	0.067***	0.065***	0.072***
Pay	0.083***	0.104***	0.109***	0.072***
Promotional Opportunities	0.061***	0.072***	0.075***	0.057***
Workload	-0.100***	-0.055***	-0.077***	-0.074***
Physical Effort	0.037***	-0.026*	-0.015	0.032**
Danger	-0.019*	-0.017	-0.009	-0.031**
Full-Time/Part-Time	0.000	-0.016	-0.012	-0.004
Self Employed	0.020*	0.037***	0.035***	0.020*
Gender	0.024**	0.013	0.022**	0.016
Age	0.036***	0.040***	0.030***	0.049***
Years of Education	-0.044***	-0.046***	-0.044***	-0.046***
Widowed	0.004	0.024**	0.016*	0.016*
Divorced	-0.003	-0.011	-0.018*	0.006
Separated	0.001	-0.005	-0.009	0.004
Single	-0.024**	-0.034***	-0.028***	-0.032***
<i>N</i>	9988	9246	10344	8890
Adjusted R-square	0.4233	0.3652	0.3758	0.4127
<i>F</i>	386.88***	280.99***	328.71***	329.77***

Level of significance: * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$; *** = $p < .001$; Beta values

Table 25: OLS Regression Results of Study Variables on Job Satisfaction, by Human Development and Democratization Indices

Variable	Human Development		Democratization	
	High	Low	High	Low
Management/Employee Relations	0.275***	0.232***	0.255***	0.261***
Coworker Relations	0.106***	0.061***	0.105***	0.055***
Job Autonomy	0.041***	0.026*	0.049***	0.025*
Interesting Work	0.344***	0.250***	0.344***	0.256***
Job Security	0.058***	0.080***	0.061***	0.083***
Pay	0.079***	0.119***	0.077***	0.118***
Promotional Opportunities	0.071***	0.069***	0.073***	0.049***
Workload	-0.100***	-0.044***	-0.095***	-0.048***
Physical Effort	0.038***	-0.048***	0.034***	-0.041***
Danger	-0.024**	-0.012	-0.025**	-0.011
Full-Time/Part-Time	0.004	-0.025**	0.008	-0.029**
Self Employed	0.021**	0.032**	0.016*	0.049***
Gender	0.018*	0.010	0.017*	0.012
Age	0.038***	0.053***	0.042***	0.044***
Years of Education	-0.056***	-0.028**	-0.059***	-0.016
Widowed	0.006	0.025*	0.007	0.023*
Divorced	-0.006	-0.007	0.002	-0.018
Separated	0	-0.008	-0.006	0.007
Single	-0.022**	-0.034**	-0.024**	-0.029*
<i>N</i>	11456	7324	12476	6758
Adjusted R-square	0.4405	0.3354	0.4244	0.3558
<i>F</i>	475.60***	195.52***	485.05***	197.4***

Level of significance: * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$; *** = $p < .001$; Beta values

countries with low economic freedom, greater rigidity of employment, low human development, and low levels of democratization. Mean scores for “interesting work” were very similar across economic freedom, rigidity of employment levels, but were significantly lower for cohesive-capitalist states and those countries with lower levels of human development and democratization. “Job security” mean scores are lower in countries with lower levels of economic freedom, greater levels employment rigidity, lower levels of human development and democratization, and cohesive-capitalist states, while there is no such consistent pattern for “pay” or “promotional opportunities.” However, perceived “workload,” “physical effort,” and “danger” is higher in countries with lower levels of economic freedom, greater levels employment rigidity, and lower levels of human development and democratization.

Furthermore, Tables 24 and 25 show OLS regression results by relative high/low levels of economic freedom, rigidity of employment, human development, and democratization. It is noteworthy that overall model fit and predictability of job satisfaction levels is much higher in countries with higher levels of economic freedom, lower levels employment rigidity, and higher levels of human development and democratization. It is also noteworthy that each of the intrinsic factors (“management/employee relations,” “coworker relations,” “job autonomy,” and “interesting work”) have stronger standardized beta coefficients (with a couple of minor exceptions) in countries with higher levels of economic freedom, lower levels of employment rigidity, and higher levels of human development and democratization. Though there is no clear consistent pattern in the standardized beta coefficient strength across all of the extrinsic factors (“job security,” “pay,” “promotional opportunities,”

“workload,” “physical effort,” and “danger”) across the different statist-related country-level factors, generally speaking, there are stronger standardized beta coefficients for the extrinsic job characteristics in countries with lower levels of economic freedom, greater levels of employment rigidity, and lower levels of human development and democratization.⁵

Thus, based on comparative OLS regression results of job satisfaction and its determinants by cohesive-capitalist/fragmented multiclass state classification and other country-level variables related to the state, there is fairly strong support for H5, H6a, and H6b. In relation to H8 specifically, countries with lower levels of economic freedom, greater levels employment rigidity, lower levels of human development and democratization, and those classified as cohesive-capitalist states have significantly lower job satisfaction levels than those countries with higher levels of economic freedom, lower levels of employment rigidity, higher levels of human development and democratization, and those classified as fragmented multiclass states. Additionally, there are significant differences between the mean scores of other intrinsic and extrinsic job characteristics, depending on country classification and levels of economic freedom, rigidity of employment, human development, and level of democratization.

In relation to H6a and H6b specifically, based on comparative OLS regression results of job satisfaction and its determinants by country-level variables related to the state, in countries with higher levels of economic freedom, lower levels of employment rigidity, and higher levels of human development and democratization, intrinsic work

⁵ Comparative OLS regression results by each of the statist country-contextual variable dummies, replacing each of the specific intrinsic and extrinsic job characteristics with the “intrinsic” and “extrinsic” indices, are available upon request. These results are consistent with the “intrinsic” and “extrinsic” patterns presented above.

characteristics do provide greater overall predictability in overall perceived job satisfaction and have greater standardized beta coefficients than their extrinsic counterparts. Once more, in countries with lower levels of economic freedom, greater levels of employment rigidity, and lower levels of human development and democratization, extrinsic work characteristics generally have equal or greater standardized beta coefficients than the extrinsic coefficients in the countries with higher levels of economic freedom, lower levels employment rigidity, and higher levels of human development and democratization. However, the results clearly show that in each case (regardless of country classification), intrinsic work characteristics add the most overall predictability to perceived job satisfaction of workers within those countries. To get a clearer picture as to the full impact that state-directed country-level contextual business related facets have on workers' job characteristics and perceived satisfaction levels, future research needs to examine a greater number and wider variety of countries, while exploring other theoretically relevant country-level variables that may help to explore country level differences from a statist perspective. Additionally, a more diverse and greater number of participating countries would also potentially help in achieving levels of significance in the level-2 covariates in the models.

Welfare state

H7a: In countries with greater levels of welfare state safety net provisions, intrinsic work characteristics and work relationships will be most salient to workers and provide the most predictability in overall perceived job satisfaction.

H7b: In countries with lower levels of welfare state safety net provisions, extrinsic workplace characteristics will be most salient to workers and provide the most predictability in overall perceived job satisfaction.

Finally, among the various explanations for why and how job satisfaction and its work determinants can differ cross-nationally, another possible explanation is embodied in the welfare state perspective (exploring the nature and role of the welfare state in the global economy and the relationship between varieties of capitalism/production regimes and welfare state regimes; see Epsing-Andersen, 1985; Hall & Soskice, 2001; Helco, 1974; Hicks & Swank, 1984; Huber & Stephens, 2001; Kitschelt et al. 1999; Korpi, 1983; Pampel & Williamson, 1989; Scruggs & Allan, 2006; Skocpol, 1988; Stephens, 1979; Weir et al., 1988; Wilensky, 1975). The various measures of welfare state size and reach utilized in these studies also help to better understand cross-national differences in welfare security measures and policy that impact working conditions and workers' attitudes about their job, where workers in countries with a relatively greater level of welfare state safety net provisions experience less concern over extrinsic work rewards and conditions than those without such provisions (Epsing-Andersen, 1990; Hall & Soskice, 2001; Huber & Stephens, 2001; Scruggs & Allan, 2006). In order to examine whether differing welfare security measures and policy would impact the relative saliency of either intrinsic or extrinsic work characteristics on worker satisfaction, country-level indicators were compiled for each of the 32 nations in wave three and included as level two factors in a model. The results in model 9 and model 12 in Table 18 show that suggested empirical measures of the welfare state (government expenditures as a percentage of GDP, government revenues as a percentage of GDP, public debt as a

percentage of GDP, and Gini coefficient of economic inequality) do not have statistically insignificant impacts on worker satisfaction, while controlling for all level-1 independent variables. Thus, these results provide no evidence for H7a and H7b.

However, in order to explore the impact of the welfare state on job satisfaction in greater detail, dummy variables were also created for those country-level contextual variables related to these welfare state hypotheses, including (1) high/low levels of government expenditure as a percentage of GDP, (2) high/low levels of government revenue as a percentage of GDP, (3) high/low levels of public debt as a percentage of GDP, and finally (4) high/low levels of the Gini coefficient of economic inequality (see Appendix A for details). Then mean scores for main study variables and OLS regression models were run for each sample to allow for comparison of intrinsic and extrinsic work characteristics and their ability to predict job satisfaction. These results are presented in Tables 26-28.

Table 26 shows the comparative mean score of main study variables by the different welfare state country-level contextual variables. There is a significant difference in overall mean job satisfaction scores when comparing by high/low levels of government expenditures as a percentage of GDP, government revenues as a percentage of GDP, public debt as a percentage of GDP, and the Gini inequality coefficient, with countries with high levels experiencing significantly higher job satisfaction scores than those countries with low scores. “Management/employee relations” mean scores varied little across the different dummy variable comparisons. However, “coworker relations” mean scores were greater in countries with high levels of government expenditure and government revenue as a percentage of GDP and greater in countries with greater

Table 26: Comparative Mean Scores of Main Study Variables, by Dummy Indices, 2005

Variable	Gov. Exp. % GDP		Gov. Rev. % GDP		Pub. Debt % GDP		Gini Coef.	
	High	Low	High	Low	High	Low	High	Low
Job Satisfaction	5.28	5.20	5.30	5.22	5.30	5.21	5.30	5.21
Management/Employee Relations	3.88	3.87	3.88	3.88	3.91	3.85	3.97	3.81
Coworker Relations	4.24	4.11	4.24	4.12	4.18	4.17	4.21	4.14
Job Autonomy	3.94	3.62	3.93	3.65	3.72	3.81	3.70	3.83
Interesting Work	3.97	3.65	3.95	3.69	3.87	3.75	3.80	3.80
Job Security	3.65	3.56	3.65	3.58	3.62	3.60	3.64	3.58
Pay	2.69	2.77	2.74	2.74	2.73	2.75	2.75	2.73
Promotional Opportunities	2.64	2.77	2.62	2.79	2.76	2.69	2.90	2.58
Workload	3.29	3.36	3.26	3.38	3.32	3.34	3.37	3.29
Physical Effort	2.44	2.60	2.41	2.62	2.51	2.55	2.62	2.45
Danger	1.99	2.16	1.98	2.16	2.05	2.11	2.13	2.04

Table 27: OLS Regression Results of Study Variables
on Job Satisfaction, by Gov. Exp. and Gov. Rev. as % of GDP

Variable	Gov. Exp. % GDP		Gov. Rev. % GDP	
	High	Low	High	Low
Management/Employee Relations	0.251***	0.263***	0.273***	0.249***
Coworker Relations	0.116***	0.067***	0.122***	0.064***
Job Autonomy	0.064***	0.023***	0.053***	0.026***
Interesting Work	0.341***	0.284***	0.333***	0.293***
Job Security	0.041***	0.090***	0.042***	0.086***
Pay	0.072***	0.105***	0.079***	0.103***
Promotional Opportunities	0.075***	0.057***	0.066***	0.061***
Workload	-0.098***	-0.062***	-0.108***	-0.059***
Physical Effort	0.037***	-0.019*	0.032**	-0.014
Danger	-0.025*	-0.015	-0.016	-0.020*
Full-Time/Part-Time	-0.003	0.039***	0.005	0.041***
Self Employed	0.005	-0.013	-0.002	-0.010
Gender	0.022*	0.013	0.026**	0.011
Age	0.042***	0.054***	0.037***	0.045***
Years of Education	-0.064***	-0.028***	-0.055***	-0.035***
Widowed	0.004	0.021**	0.000	0.022**
Divorced	-0.002	-0.009	-0.007	-0.006
Separated	-0.008	0.002	-0.001	-0.003
Single	-0.021*	-0.028**	-0.024*	-0.030***
<i>N</i>	8536	10244	8094	11140
Adjusted R-square	0.4248	0.3783	0.4417	0.3662
<i>F</i>	332.78***	329***	337.93***	339.76***

Level of significance: * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$; *** = $p < .001$; Beta values

Table 28: OLS Regression Results of Study Variables on Job Satisfaction, by Pub. Debt as % of GDP and Gini Coef.

Variable	Pub. Debt % GDP		Gini Coef.	
	High	Low	High	Low
Management/Employee Relations	0.242***	0.271***	0.264***	0.259***
Coworker Relations	0.098***	0.079***	0.053***	0.116***
Job Autonomy	0.052***	0.022**	0.016	0.056***
Interesting Work	0.290***	0.326***	0.301***	0.315***
Job Security	0.051***	0.084***	0.083***	0.055***
Pay	0.103***	0.085***	0.099***	0.086***
Promotional Opportunities	0.069***	0.065***	0.081***	0.049***
Workload	-0.058***	-0.094***	-0.071***	-0.083***
Physical Effort	0.004	0.009	0.018	-0.006
Danger	-0.027**	-0.008	-0.032***	0.000
Full-Time/Part-Time	0.026**	0.033***	0.046***	0.009
Self Employed	-0.005	-0.007	-0.001	-0.012
Gender	0.008	0.031***	0.023*	0.016
Age	0.026**	0.050***	0.043***	0.037***
Years of Education	-0.058***	-0.037***	-0.038***	-0.050***
Widowed	0.015	0.018*	0.032***	-0.001
Divorced	-0.009	-0.004	0.002	-0.014
Separated	-0.010	0.005	0.003	-0.007
Single	-0.031***	-0.026***	-0.027**	-0.032***
<i>N</i>	8795	10439	8482	10752
Adjusted R-square	0.367	0.4126	0.3822	0.4029
<i>F</i>	269.30***	386.86***	277.13***	382.81***

Level of significance: * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$; *** = $p < .001$; Beta values

inequality. “Job autonomy” mean scores were also greater in countries with high levels of government expenditure and government revenue as a percentage of GDP, while they were lower in countries with high levels of public debt as a percentage of GDP and greater inequality. Mean scores for “interesting work” were also greater in countries with high levels of government expenditure and revenue, as well as public debt, as a percentage of GDP, while there was no difference based on level of inequality.

Additionally, there is a difference in overall mean “job security” scores when comparing by high/low levels of government expenditures and revenues as a percentage of GDP, public debt as a percentage of GDP, and the Gini inequality coefficient, with countries with high levels experiencing greater perceived “job security” than those countries with low scores. “Pay” and “promotional opportunities” mean scores are significantly lower in countries with high government expenditures and revenue as a percentage of GDP, as well as in countries with low inequality, while the “pay” mean score is lower and the “promotional opportunities” mean score is higher in countries with high public debt as a percentage of GDP. However, perceived “workload,” “physical effort,” and “danger” mean scores are higher in countries with lower levels of government expenditures and revenues as a percentage of GDP, as well as those countries with lower public debt as a percentage of GDP and higher economic inequality.

Furthermore, Tables 27 and 28 on the following pages show job satisfaction OLS regression results by the relative high/low levels of government expenditures as a percentage of GDP, government revenues as a percentage of GDP, public debt as a percentage of GDP, and the Gini inequality coefficient. It is noteworthy that overall model fit and predictability of job satisfaction levels is much higher in countries with

high government expenditures and revenue as a percentage of GDP, low public debt as a percentage of GDP, and low economic inequality. It is also noteworthy that each of the intrinsic factors (“management/employee relations,” “coworker relations,” “job autonomy,” and “interesting work”) have stronger standardized beta coefficients in countries with high government expenditures and revenue as a percentage of GDP, as well as low economic inequality, with greater beta coefficients for “management/employee relations” and “interesting work” job characteristics in countries with low public debt as a percentage of GDP. Though there is no clearly consistent pattern in the standardized beta coefficient strength across all of the extrinsic factors (“job security,” “pay,” “promotional opportunities,” “workload,” “physical effort,” and “danger”) across the different welfare state-related country-level factors, generally speaking, there are stronger standardized beta coefficients for the extrinsic job characteristics in countries with low government expenditures and revenue as a percentage of GDP and high economic inequality. Countries with high public debt as a percentage of GDP have a lower beta coefficient for “job security,” a higher coefficient for “pay” and “promotional opportunities,” a lower coefficient for “workload” and “physical effort,” and a greater coefficient for “danger.”⁶

Thus, based on comparative OLS regression results of job satisfaction and its determinants by country-level variables related to the welfare state, there is mixed support for H7a and H7b. There is a significant difference in overall mean job satisfaction scores when comparing by high/low levels of government expenditures as a

⁶ Comparative OLS regression results by each of the welfare state country-contextual variable dummies, replacing each of the specific intrinsic and extrinsic job characteristics with the “intrinsic” and “extrinsic” indices, are available upon request. These results are consistent with the “intrinsic” and “extrinsic” patterns presented above.

percentage of GDP, government revenues as a percentage of GDP, public debt as a percentage of GDP, and the Gini inequality coefficient, with countries with high levels experiencing significantly higher job satisfaction scores than those countries with low scores. Additionally, there are significant differences between the mean scores of other intrinsic and extrinsic job characteristics, depending on each of the above-mentioned country-level welfare state-related variables.

In relation to H7a and H7b specifically, in countries with relative high levels of government expenditures and revenue as a percentage of GDP and low economic inequality, intrinsic work characteristics do provide greater overall predictability in overall perceived job satisfaction and have greater standardized beta coefficients than their extrinsic counterparts, with greater coefficients than the intrinsic coefficients in the countries with high economic inequality and low government expenditures and revenue as a percentage of GDP. Once more, extrinsic work characteristics generally have equal or greater standardized beta coefficients in countries with high economic inequality and low government expenditures and revenues as a percentage of GDP than is the case for the extrinsic coefficients in the countries with low economic inequality and high government expenditures and revenues as a percentage of GDP. However, the results clearly show that regardless of country high/low classification in the various welfare state variables, intrinsic work characteristics add the most overall predictability to perceived job satisfaction of workers within those countries. To get a clearer picture as to the full impact that welfare state-related facets have on workers' job characteristics and perceived satisfaction levels, future research needs to examine a greater number and wider variety of countries, while exploring other theoretically relevant country-level

variables that may help to explore country level differences from a welfare state perspective. Additionally, a more diverse and greater number of participating countries would also potentially help in achieving levels of significance in the level-2 covariates in the models.

CHAPTER 5

FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

This final chapter provides a (1) brief summary overview of the study, (2) a brief review of the main study findings, (3) conclusions and discussion related to the research questions, (4) limitations of the research, (5) implications of the research, (6) and contributions and future research.

Brief Summary of the Study

Since Hoppock's seminal work on the topic in 1935, job satisfaction has continued to generate interest across disciplines, from psychology (Argyle, 1989) and sociology (Hodson, 1985; Kalleberg & Loscocco, 1983), to economics (Freeman, 1978; Hamermesh, 2001), management sciences (Hunt & Saul, 1975), and public administration (Durst & DeSantis, 1997; Jung et al., 2007; Wright & Kim, 2004). Researchers have shown that the landscape of work in the U.S. and across the world changing dramatically over the past 15-20 years in response to economic shifts, technological advances, and an increasingly global economy (e.g., Handel, 2005; Jamison et al., 2004). Thus, it is important to understand what it is about the workplace that impacts our lives and how these characteristics impact a worker's overall job satisfaction.

The vast previous cross-disciplinary literature exploring work quality and job satisfaction has linked worker experiences to many individual, organizational, and social outcomes, yet this research has largely failed to shed much light on why cross-national differences in worker satisfaction and its determinants persist over time. This current research endeavor has sought to address this gap in the literature by investigating the following research question: What are the key country-level contextual and global-macro causes driving cross-national differences in and perceived worker satisfaction and its determinants? In order to accomplish this, first this dissertation provided an in-depth overview of the job quality and job satisfaction literature and relevant research, with specific emphasis on the linkages between job satisfaction and other important organizational and social variables and outcomes, while also examining the existing job quality characteristics linked to job satisfaction and what may be missing in this body of research. Second, this paper examined the theoretical foundations for a political economy of job quality characteristics and worker satisfaction by providing a critical synthesis and integration of the comparative international literature related to post-industrialism, globalization, economic development, and the role of the state. Third, this study specified the research and statistical methodology (including development of research hypotheses, a description of the data sources to be used in this research, operationalization of variables, a review of appropriate statistical methods in cross-national research, a description of data analysis methods for this research, and limitations of the data and chosen methodology). Fourth, descriptive and regression (OLS and) results were presented and discussed in relation to the research hypotheses.

I used nonpanel longitudinal data from the International Social Survey Program (ISSP: Work Orientations modules I, II, and III: 1989, 1997, 2005; 11 countries included in 1989, 26 countries included in 1997, and 32 countries included in 2005). As was noted previously, variables of interest in the data collected by the International Social Survey Program are single-item indicators on a Likert scale. Additionally, I utilized such data sources as the OECD, CIA Fact Book, and the United Nations to provide country-level contextual variables on the relevant economic, cultural, political, and social conditions in these countries (see operationalization section and the corresponding appendix for more detail on individual and country-level variables used). For the purposes of this study, the units of analysis began with individuals within the separate sovereign nations. In addition to examining one large sample including all respondents from all participating countries, I examined a separate sample for each country to determine which job characteristics best predict job satisfaction in that particular country and then make cross-national comparisons. Then I utilized Hierarchical Linear Modeling to analyze job satisfaction at the national level, with each country as the unit of analysis (for the 2005 wave).

Generally speaking, in comparison to all countries in the world, the 2005 participating countries experience relatively high GDP per capita and an economic sectoral composition dominated by the service sector. Most of the participating countries had a GDP per capita in the \$20-30k range, making them among the wealthiest nations in the world. In terms of sectoral composition, among study nations only the Dominican Republic, Bulgaria, and the Philippines had an agricultural sector above 10% of their overall economy, while throughout the world, 83 countries had a larger agricultural sector

as a percentage of overall economy. The service sector is by far the strongest sector in each of the 32 participating countries, followed by the industrial sector.

Brief Review of the Main Study Findings

The overall purpose in conducting this research was to (1) empirically test hypotheses (using various bivariate descriptive procedures, OLS regression, and hierarchal linear modeling) related to significant, cross-national differences in job satisfaction and its determents and (2) explore the reasons for these cross-national differences, moving beyond the research of social psychologists and organizational behavior researchers, to also include important macro cross-national social, political, economic, and cultural factors that directly influence these differences.

First, I used data from the above-mentioned quantitative sources to perform a descriptive statistical analysis of work characteristics and job satisfaction for individual countries and across nations. These bivariate and multivariate analyses included trend analysis, correlations, ANOVA and ANCOVA procedures, cross-tabulations, as well as general descriptive statistics of job quality characteristics and job satisfaction in each country to provide descriptive comparative similarities and differences between countries. Additionally, I included both aggregate and country-specific OLS regression models of the impact of individual work characteristics on job satisfaction to provide additional comparison between countries. Second, I used hierarchal linear modeling, or multilevel analysis (including intrinsic characteristics, extrinsic characteristics, and individual control variables), to test whether there was in fact a statistically significant country effect (32 total countries in the 2005 wave).

The first subsection presented the aggregate and country-specific descriptive analysis and results, specifically, it covers the following: (1) tabulations and means of demographic control variables, (2) a comparison of mean values of the key theoretical variables across country and wave, and (3) intercorrelations and other descriptive statistics of the study variables at the aggregate level. The second subsection provided the following: (1) aggregated OLS regression results by wave, (2) comparative OLS regression results by country and wave, and (3) results for the third wave. Finally, the last subsection explored the statistical results in relation to the seven study hypotheses.

Key findings include the following:

Descriptive findings

- **Job Satisfaction Means:** Job satisfaction for all countries in each wave dropped from 1989 to 1997, but then increased again from 1997 to 2005. Additionally, there were significant differences in job satisfaction across each country and wave of the study and job satisfaction is found to be significantly related to each of the main study variables in each wave of the study (1989, 1997, and 2005).
- **Intrinsic/Extrinsic Work Characteristics Means:** There were significant differences in the mean values among the main intrinsic and extrinsic study variables across each country and wave of the study.

Comparative OLS regression and findings

- **Intrinsic/Extrinsic Variables in Aggregate OLS Models:** OLS regression results of main study variables on job satisfaction show that in each of the three waves, each of the intrinsic independent variables had a highly

significant positive impact on job satisfaction, with “interesting work” and “management/ employee relations” reporting the strongest impact on job satisfaction in each wave. Furthermore, “job security,” “pay,” “promotional opportunities,” and “workload” were each highly significant in all three waves, while neither “physical effort” nor “danger” was significant in 1989, “physical effort” had a slight positive impact on job satisfaction in 1997, and “danger” had a slight negative impact on job satisfaction in 2005.

- **Intrinsic/Extrinsic Variables in Country-Specific OLS Models:** OLS regression results of main study variables on job satisfaction show that there were significant differences in model predictability and each variable’s standardized beta coefficient significance from country to country, across the three waves of the survey.
- **Results:** results of main level-1 and level 2 study variables show that a significant linear relationship between the country variable and each of the key independent variables is found, while only the estimate values for the level-2 semi-periphery/core and cohesive-capitalist/fragmented multiclass state country designation dummy variables were statistically significant at the $p < .05$ level, with the other level-two covariates not reaching that level of significance.

Hypothesis testing

- **International Differences:** H1a and H1b were supported, showing that there are statistically significant cross-national differences in the levels of job satisfaction and its determinants.
- **Post/Neo-Fordist Theories:** H2a and H2b were not supported by the analysis, but were supported by comparative OLS regression results of job satisfaction and its determinants by high/low percentage of service sector and industrial sector, showing that in countries with more dominant service sector economies, intrinsic work characteristics do provide greater overall predictability in overall perceived job satisfaction. Furthermore, in countries with a larger industrial sector in the economy, extrinsic work characteristics play a more important role in determining worker satisfaction.
- **World Systems Theory:** H3 was not supported, as there is virtually no difference in overall perceived job satisfaction levels between core countries and their semiperiphery counterparts. However, both and comparative OLS regression results provide evidence supporting H4a and H4b, that in core countries, intrinsic work characteristics do provide greater overall predictability in overall perceived job satisfaction than is the case in semiperiphery countries. Furthermore, in semiperiphery countries, extrinsic work characteristics have greater saliency and predictability in overall perceived job satisfaction than in the core countries.
- **State Directed Development:** H5 was supported, as cohesive-capitalist states have significantly lower levels of perceived job satisfaction levels than

fragmented multiclass states. Additionally, there was mixed support for H6a and H6b in the analysis, but both hypotheses were supported by comparative OLS regression results of job satisfaction and its determinants by cohesive-capitalist/fragmented multiclass state classification and other country-level variables related to the state. In countries with higher levels of economic freedom, lower levels employment rigidity, higher levels of human development and democratization, and those classified as fragmented multiclass states, intrinsic work characteristics do provide greater overall predictability of overall perceived job satisfaction. Once more, in countries with lower levels of economic freedom, greater levels employment rigidity, lower levels of human development and democratization, and those classified as cohesive-capitalist states, extrinsic work characteristics generally have greater saliency and predictability in overall perceived job satisfaction than is the case in fragmented multiclass states.

- **Welfare State:** H7a and H7b were not support by results, but there was mixed support based on comparative OLS regression results of job satisfaction and its determinants by country-level welfare state-related variables. In countries with relative high levels of government expenditures and revenue as a percentage of GDP and low economic inequality, intrinsic work characteristics do provide greater overall predictability in overall perceived job satisfaction. Furthermore, extrinsic work characteristics generally provide greater saliency and predictability in overall perceived job satisfaction in countries with high economic inequality and low government expenditures

and revenues as a percentage of GDP than is the case in countries with higher levels of welfare state safety net provisions.

- Both country comparative OLS and results clearly show that in each case (regardless of country classification and various high/low levels of different country-level contextual variables) intrinsic work characteristics add the most overall predictability to perceived job satisfaction of workers within the 32 participating countries.

Conclusions and Discussion Related to the Research Questions

The nature of work has changed dramatically in the postwar era in response to economic shifts and an increasingly global economy, particularly over the past 15-20 years. Additionally, findings show that there are differences in the job quality and the perceived experience of workers cross-nationally. However, what are the country-level contextual and global macrohistorical variables driving these differences in work quality and perceived worker satisfaction? The various literatures on postindustrialism, world systems theory, the role of the state in economic development, and welfare state safety net provisions have been useful in providing different possible explanations for historical and contextual causes for these different work conditions and perceived quality cross-nationally.

Furthermore, while the vast cross-disciplinary literature exploring work quality and job satisfaction has linked worker experiences to many individual, organizational, and social outcomes, previous research has largely failed to shed much light on why cross-national differences in worker satisfaction and its determinants persist over time. What are the causes behind these differences? Cross-cultural researchers would suggest

that any such differences would all be due to cultural differences between countries. However, the limited research that explores work quality characteristics and job satisfaction from a cross-cultural perspective has largely failed to show how countries with similar cultural orientations still experience significant differences. Thus, the question remains, what are the causes for these country differences? What are the key country-level contextual and global-macro variables driving these country differences in job quality and perceived worker satisfaction? Previous research has been unable to answer these and other related questions. Like many work attitudes, job satisfaction is a dynamic construct that changes in response to personal and environmental conditions. In this research, I have monitored job satisfaction and its antecedents in different country contexts, allowing for a clearer understanding of the salient factors that affect job satisfaction in different work contexts.

In what follows, I briefly revisit each of the four main theoretical perspectives included in this study that shed some light on country differences in job satisfaction and its determinants, along with a discussion of results that relate to these perspectives: (1) Post/Neo-Fordist Theories, (2) World Systems Theory, (3) Statist Theories, and (4) the comparative welfare state. Additionally, I will address the study results in relation to the cross-cultural literature and findings from this study.

Post/neo-Fordist theories

Post-Fordist theory emphasizes a deindustrialization in the economy and is characterized by a shift from the compartmentalization of labor characterized in classical Fordist model, to greater employee involvement and the use of self-managed work teams and other such practices (Hirst & Zeitlin, 1991; Priore & Sabel, 1984). The Post-Fordist

management paradigm and resulting workplace outcomes are most closely linked with service-sector businesses, and Post-Fordists argue that the overall intrinsic quality of jobs for most workers in the western industrialized world has increased in the last 20 years, with a shift to increased job skill requirements, task variety, and job autonomy, resulting in greater job enrichment and workplace cooperation (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982; Hirst & Zeitlin, 1991). In contrast, the Neo-Fordist framework maintains the basic principles of the traditional firm held by Fordism, yet combines the logic of mass production and mass consumption with more flexible production, distribution, and marketing systems (Graham, 1993; Harrison, 1994; Mishel et al., 2001). The Neo-Fordist management paradigm and resulting workplace outcomes are most closely linked with industrial-sector businesses, and Neo-Fordists argue that the overall extrinsic quality of jobs for most workers in the western industrialized world has declined in the last 20 years (Handel, 2005; Harrison, 1994).

While relatively little previous research has been done to show the link between country sectoral composition and perceived worker satisfaction (see Handel, 2005), particularly from a cross-national comparative perspective, findings from this study have demonstrated such a connection; in countries with more dominant service sector economies, intrinsic work characteristics do provide greater overall predictability in overall perceived job satisfaction. Furthermore, in countries with a larger industrial sector in the economy, extrinsic work characteristics play a more important role in determining worker satisfaction.

However, the results clearly show that in each case (regardless of service/industrial sector levels), intrinsic work characteristics add the most overall

predictability to perceived job satisfaction of workers within the 32 participating countries. While at first look, this result may seem at odds with Post/Neo-Fordist theory and its corresponding hypotheses, I believe it actually provides greater support for the Post-Fordist perspective, as the service sector was by far the strongest sector in each of the 32 participating countries in 2005. Future research examining a greater number and broader variety of countries (with differing levels of the three components of sectoral composition) would be able to shed additional light on the relevance of the Post/Neo-Fordist perspectives in understanding cross-national differences in work characteristics and perceived worker satisfaction.

World systems theory

World systems theory argues that there is a center of wealthy states and a periphery of poor, underdeveloped states, and resources are extracted from the periphery and flow towards the states (through the semiperiphery nations) at the center of the world system in order to sustain the core's economic growth and wealth (Acemoglu, 2002; Modelski & Thompson, 1995; Wallerstein, 2000; 1974). Extrinsic rewards and working conditions have been reported to be worse in the periphery and semiperiphery compared to those in the core nations, along with experiencing overall greater levels of economic instability than countries in the core (Benner, 2002; Dowling & Welch, 2008; Lee, 1997; Mendenhall et al., 2007; Munck, 2002; Perrucci & Perrucci, 2007; Sweet & Meiksins, 2008), and based on the different needs fulfillment models (that put first level importance on basic "existence/survival" needs) of Maslow, Alderfer, and Herzberg (see Alderfer, 1972; Herzberg et al., 1959; Maslow, 1943), this would lead to the logical conclusion that

workers in nations with greater economic instability and relatively worse working conditions would be more greatly motivated and satisfied by extrinsic workplace factors.

While no previous research has been done to show the link between a country's position within the economic world system and perceived worker satisfaction, findings from this study have demonstrated such a connection, with core countries experiencing better perceived working conditions and job satisfaction than workers in countries in the semi-periphery. Additionally, as was reported earlier, both and OLS regression results of job satisfaction by country showed that intrinsic workplace factors have a stronger impact on worker satisfaction in core countries, while extrinsic conditions have a stronger impact on worker satisfaction in semiperiphery countries. Furthermore, these findings support the crux of needs fulfillment job satisfaction models, that individuals first need to adequately address their extrinsic "existence/survival" needs before focusing on the higher level intrinsic "actualization" needs (see Alderfer, 1972; Herzberg et al., 1959; Maslow, 1943).

However, the results clearly show that in each case (regardless of country classification), intrinsic work characteristics add the most overall predictability to perceived job satisfaction of workers within the 32 participating countries. While at first look, this result may seem at odds with World Systems theory and its corresponding hypotheses, I believe it actually provides greater support for the World Systems perspective, as the 32 participating countries in 2005 were all either in the semiperiphery or core of the economic world system (no clear periphery countries participated). Future research examining a greater number and broader variety of countries (particularly including periphery countries) would be able to shed additional light on the relevance of

the World Systems perspectives in understanding cross-national differences in work characteristics and perceived worker satisfaction.

State directed development

Statist researchers have examined the role of the state as an autonomous actor within a globalized economy, directly influencing country-level contextual business related facets such as the level of state power and industrialization, the relative level of state embeddedness and autonomy with business interests, the level of bureaucratization, how states build and sustain markets, and state welfare provisions that impact the workplace (Gilpin, 2001; Kohli, 2004; Meyer et al., 1997). These factors shape the broad domestic context for workplace conditions that can impact workers' satisfaction levels and the determinants. Furthermore extrinsic rewards and working conditions have been reported to be worse in states Kohli (2004) classifies as cohesive-capitalist and neopatrimonial in nature, as compared to those same conditions in fragmented multiclass states (Benner, 2002; Dowling & Welch, 2008; Kohli, 2004; Munck, 2002; Perrucci & Perrucci, 2007; Sweet & Meiksins, 2008). As was the case with the world-systems argument above, based on the different needs fulfillment models of Maslow, Alderfer, and Herzberg (see Alderfer, 1972; Herzberg et al., 1959; Maslow, 1943), this would lead to the logical conclusion that workers in cohesive-capitalist states with relatively worse working conditions would be more greatly motivated and satisfied by extrinsic workplace factors, while workers in fragmented multiclass states with better working conditions would be better able to move beyond the various extrinsic "existence" needs and move toward the more "self-actualization" and "personal fulfillment" intrinsic needs.

While no previous research has been done to show the link between statist-oriented country-level contextual business related facets and perceived worker satisfaction, findings from this study have demonstrated such a connection, with fragmented multiclass states experiencing better perceived working conditions and job satisfaction than workers in cohesive-capitalist states. Additionally, as was reported earlier, both HLM and OLS regression results of job satisfaction by country showed that intrinsic workplace factors have a stronger impact on worker satisfaction in fragmented multiclass states, while extrinsic conditions have a stronger impact on worker satisfaction in cohesive-capitalist states. Furthermore, these findings support the crux of needs fulfillment job satisfaction models, that individuals first need to adequately address their extrinsic “existence/survival” needs before focusing on the higher level intrinsic “actualization” needs (see Alderfer, 1972; Herzberg et al., 1959; Maslow, 1943).

However, the results clearly show that in each case (regardless of country classification), intrinsic work characteristics add the most overall predictability to perceived job satisfaction of workers within the 32 participating countries. While at first look, this result may seem at odds with the statist theory and its corresponding hypotheses, I believe it actually provides greater support for the statist perspective, as the 32 participating countries in 2005 were predominantly fragmented multiclass states and a handful of cohesive-capitalist states (no clear neopatrimonial states participated). Future research examining a greater number and broader variety of countries (particularly including neopatrimonial states) would be able to shed additional light on the relevance of the statist perspectives in understanding cross-national differences in work characteristics and perceived worker satisfaction.

Welfare state

Finally, many researchers across academic disciplines have examined the nature and role of the welfare state in the global economy (e.g., Epsing-Andersen, 1985; Helco, 1974; Hicks & Swank, 1984; Korpi, 1983; Pampel & Williamson, 1989; Skocpol, 1988; Stephens, 1979; Weir et al., 1988; Wilensky, 1975) and the relationship between varieties of capitalism/production regimes and welfare state regimes (Hall & Soskice, 2001; Huber & Stephens, 2001; Kitschelt et al. 1999; Scruggs & Allan, 2006). The various measures of welfare state size and reach utilized in these studies also help to better understand cross-national differences in welfare security measures and policy that impact working conditions and workers' attitudes about their job, where workers in countries with a relatively greater level of welfare state safety net provisions experience less concern over extrinsic work rewards and conditions than those without such provisions (Epsing-Andersen, 1990; Hall & Soskice, 2001; Huber & Stephens, 2001; Scruggs & Allan, 2006).

While no previous research has been done to show the link between the level and extent of the welfare state and perceived worker satisfaction, findings from this study have demonstrated modest support for such a connection. As was reported earlier, OLS regression results of job satisfaction by country showed that for countries with relatively high levels of government expenditures and revenue as a percentage of GDP and low economic inequality, intrinsic work characteristics provide greater overall predictability in overall perceived job satisfaction. Furthermore, extrinsic work characteristics generally have greater saliency and predictability in overall perceived job satisfaction in countries with high economic inequality and low government expenditures and revenues as a percentage of GDP than is the case in countries with higher levels of welfare state

safety net provisions. However, the results clearly show that regardless of country high/low classification in the various welfare state variables, intrinsic work characteristics add the most overall predictability to perceived job satisfaction of workers within those countries. Again, given the nature of the 32 participating countries in 2005, future research examining a greater number and broader variety of countries would be able to shed additional light on the relevance of the welfare state perspectives in understanding cross-national differences in work characteristics and perceived worker satisfaction.

Why state-directed development/global position and not welfare state

Despite clear theoretical predictions, results were mixed and the hypotheses about the comparative welfare state impact on job characteristics and job satisfaction did not bear as much “fruit” as expected. By contrast, there was greater support for the hypotheses about the role of state-directed development and a country’s global position on job quality characteristics and job satisfaction. Why was this the case? The following outlines several possibilities for these results and findings:

1. The number of countries included in the 2005 wave ($N=32$) made it difficult to achieve statistical significance in level 2 of the analysis for some variables (increasing the number of countries and range of countries in future analysis could increase the chances of obtaining statistically significant results for the available welfare state variables). In contrast, comparing job satisfaction models based on country-level welfare state dummy variables provided support for the prediction that the orientation of workers would differ when workplace safety-nets are or are

- not in place within a country (with a greater focus on intrinsic workplace factors when workplace safety-nets are present, and a great focus on extrinsic workplace factors when such safety-nets are not present).
2. There are several welfare state variables not included in this analysis that could have potentially provided greatly overall predictability of the impact of the comparative welfare state on perceived job satisfaction within a given country, but were not included due to data availability challenges. These include such theoretically relevant variables as social security benefit as a percentage of GDP, public health expenditures as a percentage of GDP, and public health expenditures as a percentage of health expenditures. Each of these measures may actually get more directly at the comparative welfare-state/job satisfaction relationship than some of the available measures used in this analysis.
 3. While there was a clear theoretical argument for each of the four sets of global hypotheses, the hypotheses that proved significant after running the analysis were those that dealt more directly with immediate working conditions within a given country (world-system, state-directed development). In contrast, the welfare-state hypotheses are not theoretically geared toward immediate working conditions as much as they are geared towards the expectation of stability in future working conditions. Additionally, as the separate expectations model (change in GDP and unemployment rates from 1997 to 2005) also did not have a significant impact on job satisfaction, it could be tentatively concluded from this analysis that expectations are not as important as actual current workplace conditions when determining job satisfaction and making cross-national comparisons. However,

given the many data limitations in this analysis related to available welfare-state and country-level expectation variables, such interpretation of the study findings should be done with caution, and this issue warrants continued attention in future research.

A generalizable cross-national model of job satisfaction?

Ever since Smith, Kendall, and Hulin's (1969) job descriptive index and Hackman and Oldham's (1976) job characteristics model of job satisfaction, researchers have made modest variations to this earlier foundational work to develop a variety of job satisfaction models. Among those job satisfaction models still used today, arguably none are as commonly used as the one developed by Kalleberg (1977) and used by Handel (2005) and countless others. In each case, this commonly accepted model has been considered to be widely generalizable across a wide variety of cross-cultural and cross-national contexts. However, as I demonstrated through Tables 14 and 15 presented previously, Kalleberg (1977) and Handel's (2005) generally accepted job satisfaction model is not simply generalizable across countries around the world. Rather, what is generally considered a widely generalizable job satisfaction model actual holds up very differently in countries around the world within varying country-level contexts, with overall predictability and job satisfaction determinants' significance levels varying widely from country to country. This means that researchers should take great caution in comparing results from different job satisfaction studies performed around the world. Rather, a new and expanded model of job satisfaction (such as the one proposed in this research), one that takes into account country-contextual differences, is vitally needed.

Limitations of the Research

It is important to reiterate the limitations of this study. First, in relation to the participating countries, it is important to note that each of the three waves of data included different numbers of countries (1989— 11, 1997—26, and 2005—32; see Appendix B). While 6 countries were included in all three waves, and 22 countries were included in both the 1997 and 2005 wave, interpretation of changes over time in aggregated results based on all countries should be done with caution. Furthermore, the participating countries in each wave are not a representative sampling of countries around the world. Generally speaking, in comparison to all countries in the world, the 2005 participating countries experienced relatively high GDP per capita and an economic sectoral composition dominated by the service sector. In contrast, across the majority of countries around the world, the agricultural and industrial sectors make up the largest percentage of the overall economy. Therefore, generalization of study results and findings to all countries around the world should be done with caution.

Second, in relation to available study variables, only 10 of the 12 work characteristics variables used by Handel and Kalleberg were available for all countries in each of the three waves of the International Social Survey data used for this study, with some variables of interest (e.g., work-related stress) not available for each country in each wave of the study. Additionally, one of the primary limitations of the available attitudinal data is that each question represents a subjective single item indicator. As Souza-Poza and Souza-Poza (2000) aptly point out, “[Subjective Well Being] scores depend on the type of scale used, the ordering of the items, the time-frame of the questions, the current mood at the time of measurement, and other situational factors” (p.

5; see also Diener et al., 1999). They further point out that, as the ISSP data set only measures job satisfaction as a single-item indicator, variance due to the wording of the item cannot be averaged out and the single item further makes the evaluation of internal consistency problematic. Furthermore, though the literature has identified many important individual control variables, due to limitations in data availability, control variables used for the statistical analysis in this study was limited to the following individual characteristics: *full-time/part-time status*, *self-employment status*, *gender*, *age*, *marital status*, and *education*, while not including other potentially important control variables such as total hours worked per week, or whether or not an individual worked for the government. Lastly, the country-level contextual variables, though often exact from the available data sources, in other cases represented my best approximations for 2005. In some cases where data were not available for the exact year, I found available data from the closest approximate year to take its place. In other cases where there were no data for an approximate year, I produced estimated values based on percent change from two other points in time. However, there were still some country-level variables (like secularization and religiosity) which simply were not available for each of the 32 participating countries, and therefore they could not be utilized in the statistical analysis.

The third major limitation is the nonpanel longitudinal nature of the data. I used three waves of cross-sectional data and therefore I cannot specifically test the direction of causality among the variables examined as easily as I might with panel longitudinal data. However, I have provided conceptual frameworks that hypothesize the path of causality in addition to utilizing nonpanel longitudinal data, which enables comparison of like variables over time.

Implications of the Research

Results show that both intrinsic and extrinsic work characteristics strongly impact worker job satisfaction. Furthermore, country by country regression and results suggest that there are important country differences in both the perceived importance of various work characteristics and workers' self-report experiences with both intrinsic and extrinsic work characteristics. Therefore, it is important for any work organization (such as multinational corporations, global NGOs, local and national governments, and labor unions) to understand that individual workers in different countries face unique economic, political, and social conditions that impact their experience in the workplace.

For worker organizations, such as labor unions, findings suggest that worker satisfaction with their employment experience will differ greatly depending on the type of work which with they are involved. Results suggest that workers in industrial jobs tend to value more extrinsic workplace characteristics, such as higher pay, opportunity for advancement, and manageable workload, while workers in service sector jobs tend to value intrinsic workplace characteristics, such as job autonomy, interesting work, and workplace relationships. For union strategies and goals, this means that unions need to be aware of these fundamental differences in worker preferences and develop long-term union goals/strategies to help enhance the workers' experience on the job.

In regard to various state policies governing employment and work, findings suggest that local and national governments need to be aware of the impact that all government policy—even in seemingly unrelated areas such as economic inequality and a nations/community's sectoral composition—can have in influencing the workplace. Additionally, policy directly impacting employment laws and regulations, making a

nation/community more appealing to potential employers, will both directly impact the types of businesses that will be attracted (whether industrial or service sector firms) and the flexibility that management will have in creating a work environment that will be both economically competitive and meet the needs of the employees and the community.

Due to the fact the worker job satisfaction impacts firm performance and various measures of worker well-being, firms (regardless of economic sector or private/public status) need to be cognizant of these differences and unique challenges and work to tailor management philosophy and policy to create a unique work atmosphere that will benefit the interests of both the employer and the employee, as well as society at large.

Contributions and Future Research

In explaining cross-national differences in job satisfaction and its determinants, this research makes several contributions to the current comparative cross-national job satisfaction literature. First, much research has been conducted that shows either the general improvement or decline in the quality of work, but few studies have looked at such changes in work quality cross-nationally and over time from the perspective of the workers. Handel (2005) made important theoretical contributions in this regard (using the macro Post- and Neo-Fordist frameworks to understand changes in job satisfaction and job quality characteristics), but he examined only the U.S. workplace and did not look at global trends and differences cross-nationally. Two relatively recent studies have looked cross-nationally at indicators of job quality and job satisfaction (see Munoz de Bustillo Llorente, 2005; Sousa-Pouza & Sousa-Pouza, 2000). However, in the case of the first project, the authors dismissed previous findings based on their simplified cross-national design, and generally failed to acknowledge the value in self-perceived scoring

indicators in addressing something that is inherently self-perceived—namely job satisfaction and job characteristics. Furthermore, the authors used more of a case-study approach to rely more on objective workplace measures in Spain (namely unemployment rate, index of overwork, level of income, salary behavior, increase in salaries, and distribution of income). Though there is value in using such objective measures to look at job satisfaction, the availability of such cross-national data for a larger number of countries is limited and makes comparisons across many countries difficult, if not impossible. In the case of the second project, the authors conducted analysis without the benefit of many important individual and contextual control variables (only controlling for gender). This research combined the approaches of these two studies (capitalizing on the use of both self-perceived job quality indicators and objective workplace and national indicators, combined with the use of important cross-national control variables).

Second, I built upon Handel's (2005), Wallerstein's (1997), and Kohli's (2001) theoretical frameworks and used different global theories (Neo/Post-Fordism, world systems theory, statist theories, and welfare state theory) to examine the international political economy of work quality and job satisfaction, using a variety of country contextual variables that are relevant to these perspectives to provide a structural economic and socio-political explanation for cross-national differences in job satisfaction and its indicators. No previous research had specifically studied the possible comparative global theory implications on job satisfaction and its determinants, particularly in a cross-national comparative analysis. I built upon these global theories to examine the role that various country-contextual dynamics have in impacting domestic working conditions, and thereby cross-national difference in worker job satisfaction and its determinants.

Additionally, I demonstrated that Kalleberg (1977) and Handel's (2005) generally accepted job satisfaction model is not simply generalizable across countries around the world, but that what is generally considered a widely generalizable job satisfaction model actually holds up very differently in countries around the world within varying country-level contexts, with overall predictability and job satisfaction determinants' significance levels varying widely from country to country.

Now that it has been clearly demonstrated that the country in which one works has a significant impact on job satisfaction and its determinants, it is important to more fully understand what country-level contextual factors account for this nested country effect on job satisfaction, resulting in country differences seen in job satisfaction and its determinants cross-nationally. To get a clearer picture as to the full impact that country-level contextual factors (such as country economic sectoral composition, relative position within the economic world system, state-directed country-level contextual business related facets, and welfare state-related facets) have on differences in perceived job characteristics and worker satisfaction, future research needs to examine (1) a greater number and (2) wider variety of countries, while exploring other theoretically relevant country-level variables that may help to explore country level differences from the Post/Neo-Fordist, world systems, statist, and welfare-state perspectives (as well as other relevant theories). Additionally, a more diverse and greater number of participating countries would also potentially help in achieving levels of significance in the level-2 covariates in the models.

Finally, to be able to examine these questions and further explore possible explanations and mechanisms by which these relationships unfold, future research needs

to address the following areas. First, future research needs to create a better understanding of the linkage between various job quality characteristics and worker satisfaction, from a cross-national perspective. Furthermore, there is a need to better understand how worker satisfaction relates to many other important organizational, institutional, economic, social, and individual outcomes, from a cross-national perspective. Finally, there is a need to better understand cross-national differences in these relationships and what these differences mean for various stakeholders (e.g., employers, employees, labor unions, governments, etc.).

APPENDIX A

OPERATIONALIZATION OF KEY VARIABLES
AND SAMPLE VARIABLES

Quality of Workplace Interpersonal Relationships³

Management-Employee Relations

“In general, how would you describe relations at your workplace between management and employees?”

Coworker Relations

“In general, how would you describe relations at your workplace between workmates/colleagues?”

Extrinsic Rewards***Material Rewards***⁴

Pay

“My income is high”

Job Security

“My job is secure”

Promotional Opportunities

“My opportunities for advancement are high”

Other Work Conditions⁵

Workload

“How often do you come home from work exhausted?”

Physical Effort

“How often do you have to do hard physical work?”

Danger

“How often do you work in dangerous conditions?”

Key individual control variables

Country: Country

Female: SEX: Sex. (0—Male, 1—Female)

Age: AGE: Age. (continuous variable—enter age)

Marital Status: MARITAL: Marital Status. (1—Married, live as married, 2—Widowed, 3—Divorced, 4—Separated, 5—Single-not married, 9—NA)

Education: EDUCYRS: Education I: Years in school (Continuous variable, enter years in school; 0—NAV, 1—1 year, 40—40 years, 94—Only compulsory, 95—still in school, 96—Still college, university, 97—No form of school, 98—Don’t Know, 99—NA)

Country contextual variables

- **Female Labor Force Participation Rate:** Share of women working age (15-64 years) in employment (World Development Indicators Database)

³ Response categories for these variable included (1) Very Bad, (2) Bad, (3) Neither good nor bad, (4) Quite good, (5) Very good, (8) Can’t Choose, and (9) No Answer.

⁴ Response categories for these variables included (1) Strongly Disagree, (2) Disagree, (3) Neither Agree Nor Disagree, (4) Agree, (5) Strongly Agree, (8) Can’t Choose, and (9) No Answer.

⁵ Response categories for these variable included (1) Never, (2) Hardly Ever, (3) Sometimes, (4) Often, (5) Always, (8) Can’t Choose, and (9) No Answer.

- **Percentage Service Sector Economy:** GDP - composition by sector (CIA Factbook)
- **Percentage Industrial Sector Economy:** GDP - composition by sector (CIA Factbook)
- **GDP:** Gross Domestic Product – in billions of U.S. Dollars (CIA Factbook)
- **GDP Change:** The change in Gross Domestic Product – in billions of U.S. Dollars from 1997 to 2005 (CIA Factbook)
- **Unemployment Change:** Change in unemployment rate from 1997 to 2005 (CIA Factbook)
- **GDP per capita:** Purchasing Power Parity - US dollars (CIA Factbook)
- **Government Revenues as a percentage of total GDP:** in billions of U.S. Dollars (CIA Factbook)
- **Government Expenditures as a percentage of total GDP:** in billions of U.S. Dollars (CIA Factbook)
- **Public Health Expenditure as a Percentage of Total Health Expenditure:** total and public expenditure on health as a percentage of GDP (OECD Data)
- **Public Debt as a Percentage of GDP:** in billions of U.S. Dollars (CIA Factbook)
- **Union Density:** percentage of workforce that is part of a union (OECD Data)
- **Rigidity of Employment Index:** measures the regulation of employment, specifically the hiring and firing of workers and the rigidity of working hours. This index is the average of three sub-indexes: a difficulty of hiring index, a rigidity of hours index, and a difficulty of firing index. The index ranges from 0 to 100, with higher values indicating more rigid regulations (World Development Indicators Database)
- **Economic Freedom Index:** Index ranges from 0 to 100, with higher values indicating less government influence and lower values indicating more repressive political regimes. The Index relies on the following sources for data on banking and finance, in order of priority: Economist Intelligence Unit, Country Commerce, Country Finance, Country Profile, and Country Report, 2007-2009; International Monetary Fund, Staff Country Report, "Selected Issues and Statistical Appendix," and Staff Country Report, "Article IV Consultation," 2007-2009; Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, Economic Survey; official government publications of each country; U.S. Department of Commerce, Country Commercial Guide, 2007-2009; Office of the U.S. Trade Representative, 2009 National Trade Estimate Report on Foreign Trade Barriers; U.S. Department of State, Investment Climate Statements 2009; World Bank, World Development

Indicators 2009; and various news and magazine articles on banking and finance (see <http://www.heritage.org/index/Financial-Freedom.aspx>)

- **Gini Coefficient of Inequality:** The Gini coefficient can range from 0 to 1. A low Gini coefficient indicates a more equal distribution, with 0 corresponding to complete equality, while higher Gini coefficients indicate more unequal distribution, with 1 corresponding to complete inequality (CIA World Factbook, UNDP)
- **Human Development Index:** The HDI combines three dimensions: (1) Life expectancy at birth, as an index of population health and longevity, (2) Knowledge and education, as measured by the adult literacy rate (with two-thirds weighting) and the combined primary, secondary, and tertiary gross enrollment ratio (with one-third weighting), and (3) Standard of living, as measured by the natural logarithm of gross domestic product per capita at purchasing power parity (UNDP—Human Development Report)
- **Democracy Index:** index compiled by The Economist examining the state of democracy in 167 countries, attempting to quantify this with an Economist Intelligence Unit Index of Democracy which focused on five general categories: electoral process and pluralism, civil liberties, functioning of government, political participation and political culture. The democracy index is a kind of weighted average based on the answers of 60 questions, each one with either two or three permitted alternative answers. The democracy index, rounded to one decimal, decides the classification of the country, as quoted: (1) Full democracies—scores of 8-10, (2) Flawed democracies—scores of 6 to 7.9, (3) Hybrid regimes—scores of 4 to 5.9, and (4) Authoritarian regimes—scores below 4 (The Economist Intelligence Unit's index of democracy 2006).
- **Semi-periphery:** Dummy Variable. Value of 1 given to countries considered in the semi-periphery of the world economic system.

Dummy variables

I created dummy variables of the country contextual variables based on overall sample means relative to the 32 countries in the 2005 wave. The specific values are as follows:

- **Percentage Service Sector Economy High/Low:** whether a country had a high (>65%) or low level (<65%) of service sector economy.
- **Percentage Industrial Sector Economy High/Low:** whether a country had a high (>30%) or low (<30%) level of industrial sector economy.
- **Government Revenues as a percentage of total GDP High/Low:** whether a country had high (>35%) or low (<35%) government revenues as a percentage of total GDP.

- **Government Expenditures as a percentage of total GDP High/Low:** whether a country had high (>35%) or low (<35%) government expenditures as a percentage of total GDP.
- **Public Debt as a Percentage of GDP High/Low:** whether a country had high (>50%) or low (<50%) public debt as a percentage of total GDP.
- **Economic Freedom Index High/Low:** whether a country had high (>2.65) or low (<2.65) economic freedom index score.
- **Rigidity of Employment High/Low:** whether a country had high (>35) or low (<35) rigidity of employment index scores.
- **Gini Coefficient of Inequality High/Low:** whether a country had high (>34) or low (<34) Gini coefficient score.
- **Human Development Index High/Low:** whether a country had high (>90) or low (<90) HDI score.
- **Democracy Index High/Low:** whether a country had high (>8) or low (<8) democracy index score.

Dummy variables were also generated for the following country classifications:

- **Semi-periphery versus Core**
- **Cohesive-capitalist versus fragmented multi-class**

Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions and GLOBE Project Cross-Cultural Characteristics and Leadership Dimensions Scale Descriptions (practice and values scores based on 1-7 Likert Scale elements)

- **Uncertainty Avoidance:** "the extent to which a society, organization, or group relies on social norms, rules, and procedures to alleviate the unpredictability of future events" (House et al., 2004: p. 30)
- **In-Group Collectivism:** "the degree to which individuals express pride, loyalty, and cohesiveness in their organizations or families" (House et al., 2004: p. 30)
- **Power Distance:** "the extent to which a community accepts and endorses authority, power differences, and status privileges" (House et al., 2004: p. 513)
- **Gender Egalitarianism:** "the degree to which a collective minimizes gender inequality" (House et al., 2004: p. 30)
- **Future Orientation:** "Future orientation" is "the degree to which a collectivity encourages and rewards future-oriented behaviors such as planning and delaying gratification" (House et al., 2004: p. 282)

- **Charismatic/Value-based:** refers to a leader's ability to inspire, to motivate, and to expect high performance outcomes on the basis of his/her firmly held core values.
- **Team Oriented:** described as emphasizing effective team-building and implementation of a common purpose or goal among team members.
- **Participative:** the degree to which managers involve others in making and implementing decisions.
- **Humane Oriented:** reflects supportive and considerate leadership, but also includes compassion and generosity.
- **Self-Protective:** focuses on ensuring the safety and security of the individual or group.
- **Autonomous:** refers to independent and individualistic leadership.

APPENDIX B

ISSP WORK ORIENTATIONS PARTICIPATING COUNTRIES,

1989, 1997, AND 2005

Table 29: ISSP Work Orientations Participating Countries,
1989, 1997, and 2005

1989	1997	2005
West Germany	West Germany	Australia
Great Britain	East Germany	West Germany
USA	Great Britain	East Germany
Austria	USA	Great Britain
Hungary	Hungary	United States
Netherlands	Italy	Hungary
Italy	Netherlands	Ireland
Ireland	Norway	Norway
Northern Ireland	Sweden	Sweden
Norway	Czech Republic	Czech Republic
Israel	Slovenia	Slovenia
	Poland	Bulgaria
	Bulgaria	Russia
	Russia	New Zealand
	New Zealand	Canada
	Canada	Philippines
	Philippines	Israel
	Israel	Japan
	Japan	Spain
	Spain	Latvia
	France	France
	Cyprus	Cyprus
	Portugal	Portugal
	Denmark	Denmark
	Switzerland	Switzerland
	Bangladesh	Flanders
		Finland
		Mexico
		Taiwan
		South Africa
		South Korea
		Dominican Republic

APPENDIX C

INTERCORRELATION OF STUDY VARIABLES,

1989, 1997, AND 2005

Table 30: Pearson Correlations of Individual-Level Variables, 1989

VARIABLE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. JOB SATISFACTION	1.0000									
2. MANG/EMPL. RELATIONS	0.4326*	1.0000								
3. COWORKER RELATIONS	0.3325*	0.4701*	1.0000							
4. JOB AUTONOMY	0.2854*	0.1882*	0.1396*	1.0000						
5. INTERESTING WORK	0.4547*	0.2464*	0.2061*	0.4147*	1.0000					
6. JOB SECURITY	0.2362*	0.1731*	0.0853*	0.1720*	0.1974*	1.0000				
7. PAY	0.2733*	0.1522*	0.0863*	0.1842*	0.2291*	0.3028*	1.0000			
8. PROMOTIONAL OPPS.	0.2743*	0.1823*	0.1058*	0.1612*	0.2784*	0.2421*	0.4366*	1.0000		
9. WORKLOAD	-0.1123*	-0.0684*	-0.0560*	0.0014	0.0028	-0.0320*	-0.0273*	-0.0351*	1.0000	
10. PHYSICAL EFFORT	-0.0988*	-0.0816*	-0.0272*	-0.0508*	-0.1284*	-0.0871*	-0.1091*	-0.0543*	0.3116*	1.0000
11. DANGER	-0.1028*	-0.1583*	-0.0640*	-0.0348*	-0.0476*	-0.0540*	-0.0420*	-0.0157	0.1654*	0.4674*
12. FULL-TIME/PART-TIME	0.0367*	0.0708*	0.0732*	-0.0180	-0.0152	-0.0618*	-0.1019*	-0.0801*	-0.0363*	-0.0247*
13. SELF EMPLOYED	0.0902*	0.1193*	0.0231	0.2221*	0.0900*	-0.0280*	0.0704*	0.0423*	0.0574*	0.1318*
14. GENDER	0.0341*	0.0701*	0.0278*	-0.0446*	-0.0152	0.0055	-0.1304*	-0.1015*	0.0657*	-0.1335*
15. AGE	0.1157*	0.0793*	-0.0034	0.1201*	0.0812*	0.0623*	0.0551*	-0.1344*	-0.0176	-0.0708*
16. YEARS OF EDUCATION	-0.0094	-0.0459*	-0.0670*	0.0589*	0.1239*	0.0041	0.0845*	0.1197*	0.0263*	-0.2593*
17. WIDOWED	0.0219	0.0511*	0.0102	0.0073	0.0070	0.0110	-0.0185	-0.0299*	-0.0300*	-0.0203
18. DIVORCED	-0.0100	-0.0180	-0.0263*	0.0180	-0.0084	-0.0277*	-0.0233*	-0.0105	0.0262*	-0.0029
19. SEPARATED	0.0068	-0.0014	-0.0367*	-0.0029	-0.0149	0.0069	-0.0021	0.0020	0.0270*	0.0035
20. SINGLE	-0.0530*	-0.0121	0.0152	-0.0946*	-0.0409*	-0.0355*	-0.0344*	0.0934*	-0.0462*	0.0371*

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 30 continued.

VARIABLE	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
1. JOB SATISFACTION										
2. MANG/EMPL. RELATIONS										
3. COWORKER RELATIONS										
4. JOB AUTONOMY										
5. INTERESTING WORK										
6. JOB SECURITY										
7. PAY										
8. PROMOTIONAL OPPS.										
9. WORKLOAD										
10. PHYSICAL EFFORT										
11. DANGER	1.0000									
12. FULL-TIME/PART-TIME	-0.1071*	1.0000								
13. SELF EMPLOYED	0.0196	-0.0331*	1.0000							
14. GENDER	-0.2863*	0.2838*	-0.1140*	1.0000						
15. AGE	-0.0546*	0.0206	0.1212*	-0.0575*	1.0000					
16. YEARS OF EDUCATION	-0.1369*	-0.0183	-0.0285*	-0.0097	-0.1124*	1.0000				
17. WIDOWED	-0.0353*	0.0327*	0.0131	0.0887*	0.1679*	-0.0449*	1.0000			
18. DIVORCED	-0.0201	0.0165	-0.0358*	0.0938*	0.0820*	0.0109	-0.0324*	1.0000		
19. SEPARATED	0.0052	0.0143	-0.0151	0.0404*	0.0198	-0.0256*	-0.0138	-0.0278*	1.0000	
20. SINGLE	-0.0249*	-0.0109	-0.0464*	-0.019	-0.4607*	0.0915*	-0.0734*	-0.1475*	-0.0630*	1.0000

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 31: Pearson Correlations of Individual-Level Variables, 1997

VARIABLE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. JOB SATISFACTION	1.0000									
2. MANG/EMPL. RELATIONS	0.4368*	1.0000								
3. COWORKER RELATIONS	0.3320*	0.5282*	1.0000							
4. JOB AUTONOMY	0.2896*	0.1991*	0.1545*	1.0000						
5. INTERESTING WORK	0.4841*	0.2497*	0.2213*	0.4047*	1.0000					
6. JOB SECURITY	0.2356*	0.1583*	0.1247*	0.1666*	0.2081*	1.0000				
7. PAY	0.2872*	0.1710*	0.1141*	0.2098*	0.2449*	0.3121*	1.0000			
8. PROMOTIONAL OPPS.	0.2943*	0.2222*	0.1402*	0.2124*	0.3159*	0.2664*	0.4307*	1.0000		
9. WORKLOAD	-0.1276*	-0.0773*	-0.0698*	-0.0544*	-0.0458*	-0.0684*	-0.0417*	-0.0178*	1.0000	
10. PHYSICAL EFFORT	-0.0949*	-0.0629*	-0.0390*	-0.0837*	-0.1644*	-0.0849*	-0.1296*	-0.0584*	0.3207*	1.0000
11. DANGER	-0.1028*	-0.1246*	-0.0838*	-0.0754*	-0.0994*	-0.1034*	-0.0637*	-0.0114	0.2256*	0.4927*
12. FULL-TIME/PART-TIME	0.0082	0.0485*	0.0235*	0.0048	-0.0361*	-0.0384*	-0.0849*	-0.0877*	-0.0888*	-0.0029
13. SELF EMPLOYED	0.1087*	0.1404*	0.0387*	0.2004*	0.1079*	0.0115	0.1033*	0.0935*	0.0313*	0.0879*
14. GENDER	0.0085	0.0087	0.0070	-0.0387*	-0.0018	0.0244*	-0.1427*	-0.1079*	0.0551*	-0.1148*
15. AGE	0.0794*	0.0377*	-0.0091	0.0734*	0.0684*	0.0442*	0.0181*	-0.1370*	-0.0504*	-0.0845*
16. YEARS OF EDUCATION	0.0221*	-0.0294*	-0.0008	0.0460*	0.1121*	0.0546*	0.1410*	0.1140*	-0.0780*	-0.3012*
17. WIDOWED	0.0179*	0.0081	-0.0018	-0.0089	-0.0139	0.0105	-0.0179*	-0.0365*	0.0014	0.0032
18. DIVORCED	-0.0093	-0.0200*	-0.0151	0.0016	-0.0129	-0.0076	-0.0173*	-0.0282*	0.0097	-0.0099
19. SEPARATED	-0.0025	-0.0073	-0.0020	0.0216*	0.0046	-0.0105	-0.0096	-0.0033	0.0147	0.0133
20. SINGLE	-0.0529*	-0.0138	0.0255*	-0.0222*	-0.0215*	-0.0181*	-0.0140	0.0707*	-0.0163*	0.0233*

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 31 continued.

VARIABLE	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
1. JOB SATISFACTION										
2. MANG/EMPL. RELATIONS										
3. COWORKER RELATIONS										
4. JOB AUTONOMY										
5. INTERESTING WORK										
6. JOB SECURITY										
7. PAY										
8. PROMOTIONAL OPPS.										
9. WORKLOAD										
10. PHYSICAL EFFORT										
11. DANGER	1.0000									
12. FULL-TIME/PART-TIME	-0.1222*	1.0000								
13. SELF EMPLOYED	0.0183*	0.0205*	1.0000							
14. GENDER	-0.2518*	0.2841*	-0.1015*	1.0000						
15. AGE	-0.0536*	-0.0068	0.1063*	-0.0460*	1.0000					
16. YEARS OF EDUCATION	-0.1900*	-0.0199*	-0.0864*	0.0339*	-0.0821*	1.0000				
17. WIDOWED	-0.0078	0.0191*	0.0388*	0.0732*	0.1438*	-0.0637*	1.0000			
18. DIVORCED	-0.0126	-0.0071	-0.0307*	0.0867*	0.1142*	0.0126	-0.0363*	1.0000		
19. SEPARATED	0.0073	-0.0023	0.0041	0.0346*	0.0270*	-0.0063	-0.0175*	-0.0337*	1.0000	
20. SINGLE	-0.0104	0.0044	-0.0711*	-0.0156	-0.4686*	0.0621*	-0.0800*	-0.1540*	-0.0743*	1.0000

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 32: Pearson Correlations of Individual-Level Variables, 2005

VARIABLE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. JOB SATISFACTION	1.0000									
2. MANG/EMPL. RELATIONS	0.4535*	1.0000								
3. COWORKER RELATIONS	0.3406*	0.5385*	1.0000							
4. JOB AUTONOMY	0.2714*	0.1785*	0.1522*	1.0000						
5. INTERESTING WORK	0.4796*	0.2451*	0.2342*	0.4015*	1.0000					
6. JOB SECURITY	0.2633*	0.1834*	0.1370*	0.1522*	0.2365*	1.0000				
7. PAY	0.3000*	0.1740*	0.1031*	0.1941*	0.2794*	0.3332*	1.0000			
8. PROMOTIONAL OPPS.	0.3063*	0.2079*	0.1297*	0.1913*	0.3468*	0.2903*	0.4741*	1.0000		
9. WORKLOAD	-0.1664*	-0.1287*	-0.1012*	-0.0737*	-0.0969*	-0.0681*	-0.0894*	-0.0579*	1.0000	
10. PHYSICAL EFFORT	-0.1187*	-0.0773*	-0.0725*	-0.0786*	-0.1625*	-0.0738*	-0.1353*	-0.0780*	0.3735*	1.0000
11. DANGER	-0.1041*	-0.1242*	-0.0832*	-0.0551*	-0.0782*	-0.0568*	-0.0430*	-0.0163*	0.2334*	0.4840*
12. FULL-TIME/PART-TIME	0.0065	0.0611*	0.0436*	0.0146*	-0.0133*	-0.0417*	-0.0945*	-0.0747*	-0.0868*	-0.0141*
13. SELF EMPLOYED	0.1059*	0.1291*	0.0312*	0.2087*	0.0822*	-0.0272*	0.0623*	0.0733*	-0.0101	0.0900*
14. GENDER	-0.0160*	-0.0023	-0.0002	-0.0464*	0.0006	0.0048	-0.1443*	-0.1011*	0.0349*	-0.1434*
15. AGE	0.0753*	0.0360*	0.0006	0.0908*	0.0541*	0.0132*	-0.0428*	-0.1489*	-0.0547*	-0.0397*
16. YEARS OF EDUCATION	0.0260*	-0.0214*	0.0341*	0.0843*	0.1449*	0.0527*	0.1362*	0.0767*	-0.0547*	-0.3020*
17. WIDOWED	0.0193*	0.0169*	0.0016	-0.0126	-0.0105	-0.0025	-0.0382*	-0.0407*	-0.0054	0.0022
18. DIVORCED	-0.0153*	-0.0243*	-0.0167*	-0.0047	0.0021	-0.0219*	-0.0452*	-0.0438*	0.0108	-0.0124
19. SEPARATED	0.0076	0.0203*	0.0177*	-0.0029	0.0193*	-0.0207*	-0.0207*	-0.008	0.0138*	0.0078
20. SINGLE	-0.0598*	-0.0166*	0.0039	-0.0578*	-0.0384*	-0.0115	0.0066	0.0684*	0.0031	0.0225*

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 32 continued.

VARIABLE	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
1. JOB SATISFACTION										
2. MANG/EMPL. RELATIONS										
3. COWORKER RELATIONS										
4. JOB AUTONOMY										
5. INTERESTING WORK										
6. JOB SECURITY										
7. PAY										
8. PROMOTIONAL OPPS.										
9. WORKLOAD										
10. PHYSICAL EFFORT										
11. DANGER	1.0000									
12. FULL-TIME/PART-TIME	-0.0904*	1.0000								
13. SELF EMPLOYED	0.0190*	0.0522*	1.0000							
14. GENDER	-0.2577*	0.2048*	-0.1298*	1.0000						
15. AGE	-0.0267*	0.0520*	0.1652*	-0.0403*	1.0000					
16. YEARS OF EDUCATION	-0.1706*	-0.0371*	-0.1430*	0.0543*	-0.1257*	1.0000				
17. WIDOWED	-0.0284*	0.0403*	0.0528*	0.0976*	0.1973*	-0.0847*	1.0000			
18. DIVORCED	-0.0079	0.0015	-0.0164*	0.0859*	0.1172*	0.0088	-0.0468*	1.0000		
19. SEPARATED	-0.001	0.0157*	-0.0088	0.0294*	0.0274*	-0.0136*	-0.0256*	-0.0446*	1.0000	
20. SINGLE	0.0071	-0.0027	-0.0831*	-0.0292*	-0.4642*	0.0422*	-0.0945*	-0.1648*	-0.0901*	1.0000

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

APPENDIX D

TABULATION/MEAN COMPARISON TABLES FOR
INDIVIDUAL-LEVEL CONTROLS,
BY COUNTRY AND YEAR

Table 33: Tabulations and Means of Individual Controls, by Country, 1989

Variable	West Germany	Great Britain	USA	Austria	Hungary	Netherlands	Italy	Ireland	N. Ireland	Norway	Israel	All
Full-Time/Part-Time Status												
Full-Time	79.64	81.05	79.54	89.47	100.00	85.21	84.43	86.80	83.24	69.98	81.82	82.60%
Part-Time	20.36	18.95	20.46	10.53	0.00	14.79	15.57	13.20	16.76	30.02	18.18	17.40%
Employment Status												
Employed by Org.	89.26	88.23	86.7	86.14	93.81	92.14	69.2	79.3	84.62	94.04	82.76	86.90%
Self-Employed	10.74	11.77	13.3	13.86	6.19	7.86	30.8	20.7	15.38	5.96	17.24	13.10%
Gender												
Male	57.8	55.19	52.65	57.89	50.39	66.05	60.91	63.32	59.41	54.24	51.84	56.66%
Female	42.2	44.81	47.35	42.11	49.61	33.95	39.09	36.68	40.59	45.76	48.16	43.34%
Age	38.60	39.72	39.23	36.45	36.95	36.03	38.74	38.18	38.62	39.81	39.36	38.40
Years of Education	10.19	11.29	13.51	10.24	11.54	12.61	11.58	11.50	11.56	10.51	12.61	11.50
Marital Status												
Married	61.66	75.66	57.52	60.26	76.97	59.83	67.01	56.97	68.53	71.06	70.61	66.08%
Widowed	1.63	2.63	2.43	1.72	2.01	0.57	1.52	2.05	3.82	0.00	1.43	1.59%
Divorced	8.17	4.56	14.27	4.83	5.56	5.09	1.02	0.20	5.00	7.87	4.14	6.11%
Separated	2.08	0.00	3.98	1.18	1.24	0.00	2.37	2.25	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.17%
Single	26.45	17.15	21.79	32.01	14.22	34.51	28.09	38.52	22.65	21.06	23.82	25.05%

Table 34: Tabulations and Means of Individual Controls, by Country, 1997

Variable	West Germany	East Germany	Great Britain	USA	Hungary	Italy	Netherlands	Norway	Sweden	Czech Republic	Slovenia	All
Full-Time/Part-Time Status												
Full-Time	88.71	95.15	80.54	81.3	98.92	88.53	59.03	87.15	78.02	96.41	97.2	83.28%
Part-Time	11.29	4.85	19.46	18.7	1.08	11.47	40.97	12.85	21.98	3.59	2.8	16.72%
Employment Status												
Employed by Org.	92.9	95.63	88.61	88.37	90.99	80.53	-	93.22	92.18	92.18	93.71	88.61%
Self-Employed	7.1	4.37	11.39	11.63	9.01	19.47	-	6.78	7.82	7.82	6.29	11.39%
Gender												
Male	63.21	56.31	47.62	45.43	56.22	65.33	55.04	53.17	51.62	53.7	53.38	55.69%
Female	36.79	43.69	52.38	54.57	43.78	34.67	44.96	46.83	48.38	46.3	46.62	44.31%
Age	40.095	41.636	39.195	39.524	37.825	38.389	38.409	39.619	43.06	40.729	36.471	39.31%
Years of Education	11.965	13.187	12.424	13.847	11.819	11.637	13.937	12.87	12.339	13.283	11.872	12.37%
Marital Status												
Married	61.57	72.33	65.01	51.25	65.05	68	60.71	55.84	53.39	74.63	76.22	64.68%
Widowed	0.91	0.49	1.86	3.32	2.88	1.6	0.84	0.8	0.59	2.11	1.17	1.85%
Divorced	5.1	4.37	8.28	18.14	7.57	1.87	7.56	8.56	5.46	12.26	2.56	6.53%
Separated	1.64	3.4	3.93	3.74	1.62	0.8	1.05	1.78	0	0.85	0	1.60%
Single	30.78	19.42	20.91	23.55	22.88	27.73	29.83	33.01	40.56	10.15	20.05	25.34%

Table 34 continued.

Variable	Poland	Bulgaria	Russia	New Zealand	Canada	Philippines	Israel	Japan	Spain	France	Cyprus	All
Full-Time/Part-Time Status												
Full-Time	88.18	95.40	87.88	72.98	79.67	71.33	75.17	89.42	86.17	85.98	93.61	83.28%
Part-Time	11.82	4.60	12.12	27.02	20.33	28.67	24.83	10.58	13.83	14.02	6.39	16.72%
Employment Status												
Employed by Org.	81.27	90.79	94.51	77.82	87.00	59.52	83.90	85.27	84.62	97.44	83.48	88.61%
Self-Employed	18.73	9.21	5.49	22.18	13.00	40.48	16.10	14.73	15.38	2.56	16.52	11.39%
Gender												
Male	55.04	52.69	53.47	51.21	49.65	69.37	53.23	61.00	66.88	47.35	63.00	55.69%
Female	44.96	47.31	46.53	48.79	50.35	30.63	46.77	39.00	33.12	52.65	37.00	44.31%
Age	38.98	40.51	38.75	42.98	37.03	39.50	37.93	43.30	36.43	37.63	37.74	39.31%
Years of Education	11.86	12.52	12.21	12.94	15.33	9.85	13.44	12.79	12.09	13.90	12.35	12.37%
Marital Status												
Married	71.76	78.26	72.54	67.34	61.70	78.34	50.45	72.20	67.20	70.77	66.30	64.68%
Widowed	4.61	2.05	4.20	1.21	0.71	4.81	0.45	2.49	1.61	0.51	1.10	1.85%
Divorced	3.75	7.16	10.02	6.45	4.26	0.22	0.45	2.90	0.64	7.01	5.29	6.53%
Separated	1.15	1.79	0.97	4.03	4.02	2.41	0.45	0.00	0.00	1.03	2.64	1.60%
Single	18.73	10.74	12.28	20.97	29.31	14.22	48.18	22.41	30.55	20.68	24.67	25.34%

Table 34 continued.

Variable	Portugal	Denmark	Switzerland	Bangladesh	All
Full-Time/Part-Time Status					
Full-Time	91.98	82.56	71.44	93.82	83.28%
Part-Time	8.02	17.44	28.56	6.18	16.72%
Employment Status					
Employed by Org.	78.19	94.19	92.49	97.85	88.61%
Self-Employed	21.81	5.81	7.51	2.15	11.39%
Gender					
Male	54.66	48.84	56.84	75.54	55.69%
Female	45.34	51.16	43.16	24.46	44.31%
Age	40.11	40.40	40.09	37.48	39.31%
Years of Education	8.19	12.04	11.47	13.19	12.37%
Marital Status					
Married	68.86	62.79	53.75	84.14	64.68%
Widowed	3.68	1.99	1.82	0.27	1.85%
Divorced	3.02	6.81	7.93	0.27	6.53%
Separated	1.45	1.66	2.18	0.54	1.60%
Single	23.00	26.74	34.32	14.78	25.34%

Table 35: Tabulations and Means of Individual Controls, by Country, 2005

Variable	Australia	West Germany	East Germany	Great Britain	United States	Hungary	Ireland	Norway	Sweden	Czech Republic	Slovenia	All
Full-Time/Part-Time Status												
Full-Time	69.71	80.97	89.01	70.66	85.10	93.96	77.12	88.15	77.64	95.49	96.37	82.20%
Part-Time	30.29	19.03	10.99	29.34	14.90	6.04	22.88	11.85	22.36	4.51	3.63	17.80%
Employment Status												
Employed by Org.	86.00	88.80	84.25	86.30	85.61	90.68	84.86	88.50	88.94	86.00	93.52	83.29%
Self-Employed	14.00	11.20	15.75	13.70	14.39	9.32	15.14	11.50	11.06	14.00	6.48	16.71%
Gender												
Male	50.45	58.21	52.48	47.11	52.16	52.80	47.02	49.46	49.68	45.87	52.51	52.48%
Female	49.55	41.79	47.52	52.89	47.84	47.20	52.98	50.54	50.32	54.13	47.49	47.52%
Age	43.93	42.37	42.57	42.04	42.68	40.17	41.02	43.67	44.44	41.60	40.57	41.90%
Years of Education	14.31	11.24	11.88	12.77	13.60	12.84	13.52	13.93	12.48	12.54	12.18	12.62%
Marital Status												
Married	69.99	57.65	60.64	67.60	52.52	59.96	56.70	62.66	75.35	62.30	58.63	62.48%
Widowed	1.47	1.68	1.42	1.72	2.42	2.46	2.94	1.61	1.28	2.91	0.60	2.61%
Divorced	6.79	8.96	10.64	8.37	16.53	11.41	1.83	9.87	7.01	14.56	4.42	7.55%
Separated	2.70	2.80	0.71	3.65	3.63	0.67	5.32	1.72	0.00	1.89	0.80	2.38%
Single	19.05	28.92	26.60	18.67	24.90	25.50	33.21	24.14	16.37	18.34	35.54	24.97%

Table 35 continued.

Variable	Bulgaria	Russia	New Zealand	Canada	Philippines	Israel	Japan	Spain	Latvia	France	Cyprus	All
Full-Time/Part-Time Status												
Full-Time	88.71	94.03	70.98	82.04	67.61	69.84	76.42	87.37	89.48	79.08	95.77	82.20%
Part-Time	11.29	5.97	29.02	17.96	32.39	30.16	23.58	12.63	10.52	20.92	4.23	17.80%
Employment Status												
Employed by Org.	93.53	95.78	83.39	88.93	39.49	87.01	81.87	85.82	93.98	93.01	75.93	83.29%
Self-Employed	6.47	4.22	16.61	11.07	60.51	12.99	18.13	14.18	6.02	6.99	24.07	16.71%
Gender												
Male	43.98	51.01	49.94	50.34	65.78	52.83	56.27	60.50	42.24	43.49	57.40	52.48%
Female	56.02	48.99	50.06	49.66	34.22	47.17	43.73	39.50	57.76	56.51	42.60	47.52%
Age	41.64	40.05	43.33	45.55	42.65	41.05	48.80	38.67	42.28	40.20	39.34	41.90%
Years of Education	12.84	12.52	14.09	14.41	9.35	13.70	12.79	12.43	13.16	14.94	12.68	12.62%
Marital Status												
Married	69.49	64.29	66.12	67.85	75.04	65.29	71.24	57.58	59.77	57.12	74.96	62.48%
Widowed	3.43	6.72	0.88	1.85	8.01	2.07	5.71	1.07	6.01	1.24	0.49	2.61%
Divorced	6.46	13.22	7.15	7.07	0.31	7.32	5.52	2.14	14.36	8.88	3.41	7.55%
Separated	2.02	0.53	4.29	5.22	2.04	0.64	0.00	4.99	3.67	4.01	1.63	2.38%
Single	18.59	15.25	21.56	18.01	14.60	24.68	17.52	34.22	16.19	28.75	19.51	24.97%

Table 35 continued.

Variable	Portugal	Denmark	Switzerland	Flanders	Finland	Mexico	Taiwan	South Africa	South Korea	Dominican Rep.	All
Full-Time/Part-Time Status											
Full-Time	92.57	89.54	65.96	77.68	88.86	77.85	88.15	81.49	80.05	69.01	82.20%
Part-Time	7.43	10.46	34.04	22.32	11.14	22.15	11.85	18.51	19.95	30.99	17.80%
Employment Status											
Employed by Org.	83.21	90.86	87.82	86.85	88.45	64.43	77.06	85.78	65.47	56.98	83.29%
Self-Employed	16.79	9.14	12.18	13.15	11.55	35.57	22.94	14.22	34.53	43.02	16.71%
Gender											
Male	43.25	50.50	53.01	54.48	48.92	63.45	57.66	54.55	63.20	64.13	52.48%
Female	56.75	49.50	46.99	45.52	51.08	36.55	42.34	45.45	36.80	35.87	47.52%
Age	42.32	45.43	43.25	39.71	44.22	36.64	39.73	38.46	42.47	39.59	41.90%
Years of Education	9.23	14.04	11.22	13.58	12.76	11.09	12.42	10.61	12.72	9.94	12.62%
Marital Status											
Married	66.32	66.21	52.19	60.78	73.15	54.37	65.56	51.02	70.38	27.73	62.48%
Widowed	3.94	1.92	3.03	0.88	1.64	2.62	1.94	3.75	3.43	3.41	2.61%
Divorced	4.60	7.60	9.68	6.43	8.90	5.25	4.03	4.55	4.04	8.98	7.55%
Separated	4.03	1.74	5.45	1.13	0.41	4.52	0.32	1.48	0.49	4.09	2.38%
Single	21.11	22.53	29.65	30.77	15.89	33.24	28.15	39.20	21.66	55.80	24.97%

APPENDIX E

AGGREGATED OLS REGRESSION RESULTS,

1989, 1997, AND 2005

Table 36: OLS Regression Results of Study Variables, 1989

Variable	Base Model: Controls	Model 1: Extrinsic	Model 2: Intrinsic	Model 3: Combined
Full-Time/Part-Time	0.025(.037)*	0.051(.035)***	0.013(.031)	0.023(.032)**
Self Employed	0.084(.038)***	0.078(.037)***	0.013(.038)	0.015(.040)
Gender	0.046(.023)***	0.071(.027)***	0.022(.023)*	0.052(.024)***
Age	0.113(.001)***	0.114(.001)***	0.064(.001)***	0.074(.001)***
Years of Education	0.004(.004)	-0.034(.004)**	-0.037(.004)***	-0.042(.004)***
Widowed	-0.003(.100)	-0.010(.099)	-0.005(.088)	-0.012(.090)
Divorced	-0.013(.054)	-0.010(.052)	0.001(.046)	0.000(.046)
Separated	0.004(.116)	0.003(.110)	0.008(.100)	0.004(.099)
Single	-0.001(.033)	-0.013(.032)	0.006(.028)	-0.002(.028)
Job Security		0.136(.012)***		0.063(.011)***
Pay		0.152(.014)***		0.109(.012)***
Prom. Opps.		0.207(.012)***		0.092(.011)***
Workload		-0.089(.015)***		-0.092(.013)***
Physical Effort		-0.009(.012)		0.017(.010)
Danger		-0.040(.012)**		-0.007(.011)
Man/Empl. Rel.			0.269(.014)***	0.228(.014)***
Coworker Relations			0.125(.017)***	0.121(.017)***
Job Autonomy			0.072(.012)***	0.054(.012)***
Interesting Work			0.336(.013)***	0.291(.013)***
Adjusted R-square	0.022	0.172	0.344	0.383
Change in Adjusted R-square (from base model)	--	0.150	0.172	0.039
<i>F</i>	19.35***	95.24***	267.84***	207.79***

Beta values, followed by standard error values in parentheses.

Level of significance: * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$; *** = $p < .001$

Table 37: OLS Regression Results of Study Variables, 1997

Variable	Base Model: Controls	Model 1: Extrinsic	Model 2: Intrinsic	Model 3: Combined
Full-Time/Part-Time	-0.008(.029)	0.006(.027)	-0.010(.024)	-0.007(.024)
Self Employed	0.106(.032)***	0.066(.030)***	0.008(.027)	0.001(.026)
Gender	0.023(.021)*	0.053(.021)***	0.011(.017)	0.039(.018)***
Age	0.067(.001)***	0.081(.001)***	0.025(.001)**	0.036(.001)***
Years of Education	0.039(.003)***	-0.029(.003)***	-0.006(.002)	-0.024(.002)***
Widowed	0.002(.013)	0.003(.068)	0.015(.060)*	0.013(.059)
Divorced	-0.019(.041)*	-0.013(.038)	-0.004(.034)	-0.003(.033)
Separated	-0.005(.078)	-0.002(.072)	-0.004(.064)	-0.003(.062)
Single	-0.016(.027)	-0.024(.024)**	-0.029(.022)***	-0.031(.021)***
Job Security		0.114(.008)***		0.053(.007)***
Pay		0.162(.010)***		0.113(.009)***
Prom. Opps.		0.214(.010)***		0.071(.009)***
Workload		-0.099(.011)***		-0.082(.010)***
Physical Effort		0.004(.009)		0.041(.008)***
Danger		-0.048(.009)***		-0.009(.008)
Man/Empl. Rel.			0.278(.010)***	0.245(.010)***
Coworker Relations			0.087(.013)***	0.081(.013)***
Job Autonomy			0.074(.008)***	0.050(.008)***
Interesting Work			0.366(.009)***	0.329(.009)***
Adjusted R-square	0.019	0.170	0.354	0.387
Change in Adjusted R-square (from base model)	--	0.152	0.184	0.033
<i>F</i>	28.77***	182.34***	559.48***	441.09***

Beta values, followed by standard error values in parentheses.

Level of significance: * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$; *** = $p < .001$

Table 38: OLS Regression Results of Study Variables, 2005

Variable	Base Model: Controls	Model 1: Extrinsic	Model 2: Intrinsic	Model 3: Combined
Full-Time/Part-Time	0.003(.022)	0.014(.021)*	-0.012(.019)*	-0.007(.019)
Self Employed	0.099(.022)***	0.071(.022)***	0.031(.022)***	0.029(.022)***
Gender	-0.000(.017)	0.027(.016)***	0.000(.014)	0.020(.015)***
Age	0.051(.001)***	0.072(.001)***	0.027(.001)***	0.039(.001)***
Years of Education	0.050(.002)***	-0.017(.002)*	-0.029(.002)***	-0.047(.002)***
Widowed	0.005(.054)	0.009(.051)	0.016(.048)**	0.017(.048)**
Divorced	-0.023(.031)***	-0.009(.029)	-0.014(.026)*	-0.006(.026)
Separated	0.004(.053)	0.013(.050)*	-0.009(.045)	-0.002(.045)
Single	-0.033(.021)***	-0.034(.020)***	-0.028(.018)***	-0.029(.018)***
Job Security		0.146(.007)***		0.068(.007)***
Pay		0.152(.008)***		0.092(.007)***
Prom. Opps.		0.195(.008)***		0.067(.007)***
Workload		-0.110(.009)***		-0.078(.007)***
Physical Effort		-0.017(.007)*		0.007(.007)
Danger		-0.045(.007)***		-0.017(.007)**
Man/Empl. Rel.			0.298(.009)***	0.259(.009)***
Coworker Relations			0.090(.011)***	0.088(.011)***
Job Autonomy			0.057(.007)***	0.037(.007)***
Interesting Work			0.359(.007)***	0.310(.008)***
Adjusted R-square	0.0176	0.1816	0.361	0.3915
Change in Adjusted R-square (from base model)	--	0.164	0.179	0.031
<i>F</i>	44.8***	311.17***	865.41***	652.33***

Beta values, followed by standard error values in parentheses.

Level of significance: * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$; *** = $p < .001$

APPENDIX F

COUNTRY-SPECIFIC OLS REGRESSION RESULTS,

1989, 1997, AND 2005

Table 39: OLS Regression Results of Study Variables on Job Satisfaction, by Country, 1989

VARIABLE	WEST GERMANY	GREAT BRITAIN	USA	AUSTRIA	HUNGARY	NETHERLANDS	All
MAN/EMPL. REL.	0.344***	0.228***	0.224***	0.265***	0.071	0.172***	0.228***
COWORKER REL.	0.140***	0.116***	0.104***	0.074*	0.107*	0.132***	0.121***
JOB AUTONOMY	0.034	0.063	-0.013	0.090*	0.161***	0.140***	0.054***
INTER. WORK	0.259***	0.264***	0.357***	0.200***	0.198***	0.326***	0.291***
JOB SECURITY	0.044	0.01	0.080**	0.046	0.157***	0.003	0.063***
PAY	0.143***	0.107**	0.131***	0.134***	0.099*	0.080*	0.109***
PROM. OPPTS.	0.054	0.189***	0.126***	0.081*	0.007	0.162***	0.092***
WORKLOAD	-0.093**	-0.135***	-0.084**	-0.047	-0.054	-0.140***	-0.092***
PHYSICAL EFFORT	-0.096*	0.02	-0.027	0.011	0.068	0.121**	0.017
DANGER	0.099*	0.001	0.002	0.057	0.016	-0.074*	-0.007
FULL/PART-TIME	0.014	0.120***	-0.052	0.115***	-	0.051	0.023**
SELF EMPLOYED	0.055	0.045	-0.01	-0.005	-0.042	-0.004	0.015
GENDER	0.014	0.008	0.085**	0.084*	0.053	0.028	0.052***
AGE	0.055	0.132***	0.019	0.108**	0.110*	0.016	0.074***
YEARS OF EDUC.	-0.019	0.002	-0.130***	0.002	-0.143**	-0.022	-0.042***
WIDOWED	-0.037	-0.019	0.009	-0.043	-0.003	0.037	-0.012
DIVORCED	0.012	0.03	-0.025	0.001	0.007	-0.002	0.000
SEPARATED	0.026	-	-0.049	0.014	0.039	-	0.004
SINGLE	0.01	0.080*	-0.03	-0.029	0.038	-0.026	-0.002
<i>N</i>	508	626	747	771	519	570	6,322
ADJ. R-SQUARED	0.4991	0.4292	0.463	0.3028	0.2232	0.4654	0.383
<i>F</i>	27.58***	27.11***	34.85***	18.6***	9.27***	28.52***	207.79***

Level of significance: * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$; *** = $p < .001$; Beta values

Table 39 continued.

VARIABLE	ITALY	IRELAND	N. IRELAND	NORWAY	ISRAEL	All
MAN/EMPL. REL.	0.188***	0.255***	0.265***	0.260***	0.217***	0.228***
COWORKER REL.	0.052	0.046	0.122*	0.235***	0.148***	0.121***
JOB AUTONOMY	0.075	-0.012	0.112*	0.017	-0.009	0.054***
INTER. WORK	0.360***	0.354***	0.187***	0.327***	0.273***	0.291***
JOB SECURITY	0.216***	0.0327	0.049	0.038	0.044	0.063***
PAY	0.098*	0.206***	0.224***	0.054	0.038	0.109***
PROM. OPPS.	0.027	0.142***	0.044	0.091***	0.01	0.092***
WORKLOAD	-0.037	-0.082*	0.041	-0.062*	-0.116**	-0.092***
PHYSICAL EFFORT	0.002	0.049	-0.071	0.017	-0.067	0.017
DANGER	0.036	-0.062	-0.043	0.002	-0.083	-0.007
FULL/PART-TIME	-0.016	-0.025	0.019	0.052	0.011	0.023**
SELF EMPLOYED	0.013	-0.012	0.075	0.007	0.051	0.015
GENDER	0.025	0.121**	0.025	0.027	0.009	0.052***
AGE	0.039	0.043	-0.012	0.096***	0.076	0.074***
			-	-		
YEARS OF EDUC.	-0.126**	-0.036	0.194***	0.081263	0.05	-0.042***
WIDOWED	0.049	-0.071	-0.04	-	-0.012	-0.012
DIVORCED	0.007	-0.041	0.052	-0.018	-0.043	0.000
SEPARATED	0.016	-0.04	-	-	-	0.004
SINGLE	0.033	-0.095*	0.056	-0.028	-0.042	-0.002
<i>N</i>	473	410	293	861	544	6,322
ADJ. R-SQUARED	0.3899	0.4444	0.4062	0.4527	0.2665	0.383
<i>F</i>	16.88***	18.22***	12.1***	42.84***	11.96***	207.79***

Level of significance: * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$; *** = $p < .001$; Beta values

Table 40: OLS Regression Results of Study Variables on Job Satisfaction,
by Country, 1997

VARIABLE	WEST GERMANY	EAST GERMANY	GREAT BRITAIN	USA	HUNGARY	ITALY	All
MAN/EMPL. REL.	0.268***	0.502***	0.219***	0.229***	0.221***	0.184***	0.245***
COWORKER REL.	0.062	-0.026	0.090*	0.076*	0.059	0.058	0.081***
JOB AUTONOMY	0.113**	-0.034	0.143***	0.098***	-0.019	0.072	0.050***
INTER. WORK	0.323***	0.460***	0.372***	0.316***	0.274***	0.393***	0.329***
JOB SECURITY	0.072*	0.049	0.031	0.073*	0.116**	0.123**	0.053***
PAY	0.070	0.092	0.099**	0.061	0.162***	0.073	0.113***
PROM. OPPS.	0.072	-0.025	0.095*	0.133***	0.070	0.052	0.071***
WORKLOAD	-0.091**	-0.079	-0.048	-0.109***	-0.038	0.033	-0.082***
PHYSICAL EFFORT	-0.025	0.103	0.146***	0.076*	-0.045	0.158***	0.041***
DANGER	-0.010	-0.038	-0.129***	-0.072*	0.073	0.006	-0.009
FULL/PART-TIME	0.067	-0.060	0.017	0.005	0.020	-0.092*	-0.007
SELF EMPLOYED	0.023	-0.041	-0.014	-0.022	-0.029	-0.054	0.001
GENDER	0.022	0.077	0.035	0.041	0.035	0.086	0.039***
AGE	-0.022	0.024	0.040	0.088**	0.098*	0.024	0.036***
YEARS OF EDUC.	-0.036	-0.083	-0.087**	-0.037	-0.050	0.060	-0.024***
WIDOWED	-0.004	-0.055	-0.001	-0.015	-0.045	0.105**	0.013
DIVORCED	0.006	0.015	0.041	-0.005	-0.028	-0.017	-0.003
SEPARATED	-0.037	-0.022	-0.009	0.006	0.054	-0.010	-0.003
SINGLE	-0.006	0.094	-0.012	-0.042	0.027	-0.006	-0.031***
<i>N</i>	514	187	483	722	555	375	13,248
ADJ. R-SQUARED	0.426	0.4617	0.4809	0.4402	0.3127	0.3783	0.3870
<i>F</i>	21.04***	9.4***	24.51***	30.84***	14.27***	12.98***	441.09***

Level of significance: * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$; *** = $p < .001$; Beta values

Table 40 continued.

VARIABLE	NORWAY	SWEDEN	CZECH REPUBLIC	SLOVENIA	ISRAEL	JAPAN	All
MAN/EMPL. REL.	0.313***	0.270***	0.228***	0.242***	0.163***	0.153***	0.245***
COWORKER REL.	0.152***	0.083**	0.101*	0.049	0.080	0.144***	0.081***
JOB AUTONOMY	0.040	0.119***	0.070	0.007	0.115**	-0.025	0.050***
INTER. WORK	0.312***	0.392***	0.209***	0.307***	0.362***	0.340***	0.329***
JOB SECURITY	0.041	0.037	0.128***	0.075	-0.003	-0.012	0.053***
PAY	0.086***	0.058	0.074	0.233***	0.138**	0.168***	0.113***
PROM. OPPTS.	0.082***	-0.006	0.065	0.102*	0.089	0.070	0.071***
WORKLOAD	-0.116***	-0.105***	-0.036	-0.081*	-0.044	-0.046	-0.082***
PHYSICAL EFFORT	0.028	0.055	0.055	0.030	0.027	-0.023	0.041***
DANGER	-0.042	-0.083*	-0.019	0.017	-0.078	-0.097*	-0.009
FULL/PART-TIME	0.041	-0.064*	-0.003	-0.076*	0.058	-0.002	-0.007
SELF EMPLOYED	0.001	0.007	0.038	-0.025	0.050	-0.036	0.001
GENDER	0.009	0.068*	0.051	0.005	0.025	-0.006	0.039***
AGE	0.020	-0.049	0.021	0.000	0.048	0.140**	0.036***
YEARS OF EDUC.	-0.074***	-0.130***	0.014	-0.055	-0.046	0.011	-0.024***
WIDOWED	0.017	0.059*	-0.036	-0.017	-0.125***	0.053	0.013
DIVORCED	0.041	-0.021	-0.046	0.070	-0.032	-0.061	-0.003
SEPARATED	-0.012	-	-0.022	-	-	-	-0.003
SINGLE	0.023	-0.001	-0.054	-0.049	0.003	-0.046	-0.031***
<i>N</i>	1121	678	473	429	381	482	13,248
ADJ. R-SQUARED	0.4375	0.453	0.2851	0.4334	0.3800	0.3615	0.3870
<i>F</i>	46.86***	32.15***	10.9***	19.19***	13.94***	16.13***	441.09***

Level of significance: * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$; *** = $p < .001$; Beta values

Table 40 continued.

VARIABLE	POLAND	BULGARIA	RUSSIA	NEW ZEALAND	CANADA	PHILIPPINES	All
MAN/EMPL. REL.	0.247***	0.180***	0.294***	0.363***	0.205***	0.120	0.245***
COWORKER REL.	0.029	0.070	0.102**	-0.009	0.062	-0.013	0.081***
JOB AUTONOMY	0.044	-0.024	0.087*	0.002	-0.016	-0.025	0.050***
INTER. WORK	0.429***	0.235***	0.293***	0.338***	0.472***	0.180***	0.329***
JOB SECURITY	0.126**	0.133**	-0.103**	0.105*	0.025	0.246***	0.053***
PAY	0.154***	0.154***	0.172***	0.081	0.165***	0.009	0.113***
PROM. OPPS.	-0.014	0.144**	0.014	0.137*	0.071	-0.028	0.071***
WORKLOAD	-0.040	-0.128**	-0.017	-0.040	-0.120***	-0.043	-0.082***
PHYSICAL EFFORT	-0.004	-0.033	-0.050	0.113	0.059	-0.068	0.041***
DANGER	0.048	0.096*	-0.008	-0.042	-0.003	-0.094	-0.009
FULL/PART-TIME	0.037	-0.042	-0.054	-0.019	0.008	-0.002	-0.007
SELF EMPLOYED	0.016	0.017	-0.023	-0.116*	0.041	0.087	0.001
GENDER	0.091*	0.107*	0.013	0.078	0.025	-0.073	0.039***
AGE	0.051	0.098*	0.092**	0.169***	0.048	0.057	0.036***
YEARS OF EDUC.	-0.115*	-0.012	-0.001	-0.057	-0.041	0.050	-0.024***
WIDOWED	-0.004	0.033	0.022	0.020	-0.033	0.067	0.013
DIVORCED	0.006	-0.006	0.013	-0.013	-0.034	-0.002	-0.003
SEPARATED	-0.016	-0.020	0.017	0.010	-0.072*	0.025	-0.003
SINGLE	-0.047	-0.067	0.000	0.066	-0.105**	0.020	-0.031***
<i>N</i>	347	391	619	248	423	457	13,248
ADJ. R-SQUARED	0.4531	0.3395	0.3871	0.4488	0.4874	0.1686	0.3870
<i>F</i>	16.09***	11.55***	21.54***	11.58***	22.12***	5.87***	441.09***

Level of significance: * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$; *** = $p < .001$; Beta values

Table 40 continued.

VARIABLE	FRANCE	CYPRUS	PORTUGAL	DENMARK	SWITZERLAND	BANGLADESH	All
MAN/EMPL. REL.	0.243***	0.279***	0.140***	0.299***	0.225***	0.238***	0.245***
COWORKER REL.	0.091**	-0.009	0.081*	0.113**	0.090***	0.009	0.081***
JOB AUTONOMY	0.057	-0.016	0.106**	0.037	0.076**	0.145	0.050***
INTER. WORK	0.390***	0.282***	0.337***	0.321***	0.352***	0.260***	0.329***
JOB SECURITY	0.071*	0.066	0.017	0.047	0.063**	0.132**	0.053***
PAY	0.144***	0.200***	0.106**	0.094**	0.100***	-0.081	0.113***
PROM. OPPTS.	0.076*	0.033	0.063	0.011	0.065**	0.055	0.071***
WORKLOAD	-0.096***	-0.146***	-0.022	-0.099**	-0.150***	-0.074	-0.082***
PHYSICAL EFFORT	0.016	-0.001	-0.092*	0.032	0.112***	0.086	0.041***
DANGER	0.029	-0.009	0.073*	-0.043	-0.055*	-0.091*	-0.009
FULL/PART-TIME	-0.024	0.023	0.009	-0.011	-0.015	-0.131**	-0.007
SELF EMPLOYED	-0.005	0.119***	-0.028	-0.065	-0.030	0.007	0.001
GENDER	0.028	-0.041	0.049	0.011	0.044	0.089*	0.039***
AGE	-0.028	0.044	-0.04	0.054	0.053	0.065	0.036***
YEARS OF EDUC.	-0.075*	0.060	-0.138***	0.001	-0.022	-0.054	-0.024***
WIDOWED	-0.029	0.048	0.008	0.014	0.001	0.076	0.013
DIVORCED	0.021	-0.017	0.000	0.008	-0.035	-0.046	-0.003
SEPARATED	-0.016	0.038	0.012	-0.014	0.003	-0.064	-0.003
SINGLE	-0.030	0.001	-0.044	0.049	-0.068**	-0.054	-0.031***
<i>N</i>	585	454	761	602	1425	372	13,248
ADJ. R-SQUARED	0.4798	0.4768	0.2784	0.3692	0.4497	0.3791	0.387
<i>F</i>	29.35***	22.73***	16.43***	19.52***	62.25***	12.92***	441.09***

Level of significance: * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$; *** = $p < .001$; Beta values

Table 41: OLS Regression Results of Study Variables on Job Satisfaction,
by Country, 2005

VARIABLE	AUSTRIA	WEST GERMANY	EAST GERMANY	GREAT BRITAIN	USA	HUNGARY	All
MAN/EMPL. REL.	0.349***	0.218***	0.105	0.190***	0.264***	0.251***	0.259***
COWORKER REL.	0.037	0.011	0.165**	0.122**	0.091**	0.024	0.088***
JOB AUTONOMY	0.015	0.097*	0.216***	0.046	-0.023	0.057	0.037***
INTER. WORK	0.412***	0.362***	0.248***	0.401***	0.348***	0.321***	0.310***
JOB SECURITY	0.094***	-0.016	0.179**	0.108**	0.119***	0.047	0.068***
PAY	0.078**	0.125**	0.103	0.109*	0.098***	0.030	0.092***
PROM. OPPS.	0.079**	0.061	0.091	0.076	0.086**	0.040	0.067***
WORKLOAD	-0.103***	-0.183***	-0.097	-0.066	-0.067*	0.028	-0.078***
PHYSICAL EFFORT	0.119***	-0.015	-0.083	0.114*	0.031	-0.050	0.007
DANGER	0.024	-0.052	0.104	-0.103*	-0.077**	0.043	-0.017**
FULL/PART-TIME	0.056*	-0.070	0.066	0.054	-0.007	0.024	-0.007
SELF EMPLOYED	0.033	-0.023	-0.004	-0.015	0.027	-0.083	0.029***
GENDER	0.041	0.061	-0.007	-0.027	-0.016	0.083	0.020***
AGE	0.074**	0.019	-0.011	0.066	0.059*	0.057	0.039***
YEARS OF EDUC.	-0.006	-0.097*	-0.126*	-0.053	-0.119***	-0.106*	-0.047***
WIDOWED	0.031	-0.049	0.107*	0.032	0.033	0.000	0.017**
DIVORCED	-0.003	-0.018	0.067	0.045	0.026	0.012	-0.006
SEPARATED	-0.009	-0.039	-0.051	0.060	0.013	0.007	-0.002
SINGLE	-0.007	-0.034	-0.009	-0.009	0.013	-0.052	-0.029***
<i>N</i>	1012	440	232	394	941	407	19,234
ADJ. R-SQUARED	0.5293	0.4168	0.4020	0.4716	0.4272	0.2355	0.3915
<i>F</i>	60.83***	17.51***	9.17***	19.46***	37.89***	7.58***	652.33***

Level of significance: * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$; *** = $p < .001$; Beta values

Table 41 continued.

VARIABLE	BULGARIA	RUSSIA	NEW ZEALAND	CANADA	PHILIPPINES	ISRAEL	All
MAN/EMPL. REL.	0.155**	0.120***	0.308***	0.227***	0.096	0.201***	0.259***
COWORKER REL.	0.084	0.055	0.073*	0.048	0.075	0.107*	0.088***
JOB AUTONOMY	-0.002	-0.026	-0.003	0.109**	-0.022	0.067	0.037***
INTER. WORK	0.237***	0.289***	0.305***	0.390***	0.164***	0.361***	0.310***
JOB SECURITY	0.038	0.095**	0.085**	-0.019	0.139**	0.113**	0.068***
PAY	0.139*	0.202***	0.031	0.112**	0.105	0.090**	0.092***
PROM. OPPS.	0.061	0.038	0.166***	0.105**	0.070	0.009*	0.067***
WORKLOAD	-0.005	-0.092**	-0.152***	-0.082*	-0.004	-0.063	-0.078***
PHYSICAL EFFORT	-0.108	-0.044	0.150***	-0.065	-0.090	-0.015	0.007
DANGER	-0.086	0.023	-0.073*	-0.017	-0.053	-0.066	-0.017**
FULL/PART-TIME	-0.130**	-0.047	0.039	0.029	0.023	-0.022	-0.007
SELF EMPLOYED	0.008	0.027	0.013	0.082*	0.004	0.025	0.029***
GENDER	-0.059	0.005	0.022	0.031	0.041	-0.033	0.020***
AGE	0.133*	0.079*	0.097**	0.101**	0.025	0.015	0.039***
YEARS OF EDUC.	-0.009	-0.033	-0.016	-0.068	0.021	-0.061	-0.047***
WIDOWED	0.039	0.073*	0.031	-0.020	0.008	0.052	0.017**
DIVORCED	-0.103*	0.023	0.002	-0.022	0.056	-0.028	-0.006
SEPARATED	-0.022	0.034	0.013	0.010	-0.010	0.037	-0.002
SINGLE	0.005	-0.038	-0.035	-0.067	0.014	-0.031	-0.029***
<i>N</i>	414	753	750	459	555	470	19,234
ADJ. R-SQUARED	0.2873	0.3336	0.4842	0.4800	0.1896	0.4189	0.3915
<i>F</i>	9.76***	20.82***	38.00***	23.25***	7.82***	18.8***	652.33***

Level of significance: * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$; *** = $p < .001$; Beta values

Table 41 continued.

VARIABLE	PORTUGAL	DENMARK	SWITZERLAND	FLANDERS	FINLAND	MEXICO	All
MAN/EMPL. REL.	0.179***	0.299***	0.062	0.201***	0.297***	0.197***	0.259***
COWORKER REL.	0.147***	0.120***	0.158***	0.017	0.095*	0.085	0.088***
JOB AUTONOMY	0.037	0.065*	0.073*	0.084*	0.036	0.006	0.037***
INTER. WORK	0.239***	0.330***	0.404***	0.248***	0.385***	0.290***	0.310***
JOB SECURITY	0.012	0.046	0.028	0.029	0.032	0.057	0.068***
PAY	0.094**	0.014	0.092*	0.062	0.102**	0.138**	0.092***
PROM. OPPS.	0.169***	0.061*	0.068	-0.037	0.010	-0.063	0.067***
WORKLOAD	0.004	-0.138***	-0.080*	-0.051	-0.203***	-0.092*	-0.078***
PHYSICAL EFFORT	-0.018	0.048	0.080	0.076	0.088*	0.040	0.007
DANGER	-0.073*	-0.006	-0.087*	-0.062	0.054	0.001	-0.017**
FULL/PART-TIME	-0.060*	-0.008	-0.026	0.012	-0.018	-0.070	-0.007
SELF EMPLOYED	0.002	0.041	0.039	-0.057	-0.002	0.090*	0.029***
GENDER	-0.029	0.004	0.024	-0.052	0.111***	0.155***	0.020***
AGE	0.019	0.031	0.113**	-0.073	0.099**	0.050	0.039***
YEARS OF EDUC.	-0.102*	-0.052	-0.015	-0.008	-0.043	0.033	-0.047***
WIDOWED	0.035	0.000	0.007	0.003	-0.010	0.004	0.017**
DIVORCED	0.018	-0.003	0.025	0.005	-0.025	-0.050	-0.006
SEPARATED	-0.064*	-0.017	0.012	0.028	-0.022	-0.071	-0.002
SINGLE	-0.042	0.004	-0.030	-0.055	-0.002	-0.090	-0.029***
<i>N</i>	923	793	612	676	539	454	19,234
ADJ. R-SQUARED	0.3505	0.4336	0.3645	0.1753	0.4961	0.2579	0.3915
<i>F</i>	27.19***	32.91***	19.44***	8.55***	28.87***	9.28***	652.33***

Level of significance: * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$; *** = $p < .001$; Beta values

Table 41 continued.

VARIABLE	IRELAND	NORWAY	SWEDEN	CZECH REPUBLIC	SLOVENIA	JAPAN	All
MAN/EMPL. REL.	0.361***	0.270***	0.230***	0.244***	0.283***	0.251***	0.259***
COWORKER REL.	0.041	0.187***	0.146***	0.216***	0.059	0.135**	0.088***
JOB AUTONOMY	-0.037	0.054	0.077*	0.006	-0.004	0.080	0.037***
INTER. WORK	0.319***	0.382***	0.390***	0.218***	0.262***	0.261***	0.310***
JOB SECURITY	0.043	0.043	0.006	0.162***	0.069	0.019	0.068***
PAY	0.107**	0.069*	0.058	0.108*	0.188***	0.104*	0.092***
PROM. OPPTS.	0.172***	0.044	0.110***	-0.043	0.084	-0.075	0.067***
WORKLOAD	-0.169***	-0.116***	-0.098***	-0.013	-0.079	-0.058	-0.078***
PHYSICAL EFFORT	0.043	0.025	-0.052	-0.063	0.000	-0.037	0.007
DANGER	0.000	0.000	0.041	-0.043	-0.009	-0.032	-0.017**
FULL/PART-TIME	0.055	0.027	0.063*	0.020	0.105**	-0.010	-0.007
SELF EMPLOYED	0.064	-0.061*	0.008	-0.005	-0.019	0.075	0.029***
GENDER	0.095*	0.044	0.037	0.023	-0.021	-0.029	0.020***
AGE	0.059	-0.015	-0.015	-0.059	0.054	0.115*	0.039***
YEARS OF EDUC.	0.001	-0.107***	-0.103***	0.033	-0.050	0.070	-0.047***
WIDOWED	0.009	-0.001	-0.030	0.015	0.073	-0.019	0.017**
DIVORCED	-0.033	0.013	-0.010	0.017	0.024	0.013	-0.006
SEPARATED	-0.014	-0.007	-	-0.031	0.013	-	-0.002
SINGLE	-0.067	-0.028	0.017	-0.064	-0.041	-0.069	-0.029***
<i>N</i>	468	737	734	557	433	379	19,234
ADJ. R-SQUARED	0.4609	0.4677	0.4800	0.3911	0.4259	0.3331	0.3915
<i>F</i>	22.01***	35.04***	38.59***	19.79***	17.87***	11.49***	652.33***

Level of significance: * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$; *** = $p < .001$; Beta values

Table 41 continued.

VARIABLE	SPAIN	LATVIA	FRANCE	CYPRUS	All
MAN/EMPL. REL.	0.227***	0.183***	0.269***	0.519***	0.259***
COWORKER REL.	0.074	0.146***	0.135***	0.155***	0.088***
JOB AUTONOMY	0.052	0.058	0.088***	0.054	0.037***
INTER. WORK	0.310***	0.369***	0.398***	0.020	0.310***
JOB SECURITY	0.087*	0.062	0.030	0.060	0.068***
PAY	0.069	0.084*	0.108***	0.144***	0.092***
PROM. OPPTS.	0.071	0.095*	0.132***	0.052	0.067***
WORKLOAD	-0.117**	-0.063	-0.112***	-0.057	-0.078***
PHYSICAL EFFORT	0.023	-0.099*	0.027	-0.070	0.007
DANGER	-0.064	0.130***	0.005	0.028	-0.017**
FULL/PART-TIME	0.009	-0.031	0.066**	-0.060*	-0.007
SELF EMPLOYED	0.110**	0.067	-0.005	0.049	0.029***
GENDER	-0.016	-0.036	-0.017	-0.009	0.020***
AGE	0.065	0.137***	0.038	-0.030	0.039***
YEARS OF EDUC.	-0.042	-0.131***	-0.078***	-0.055	-0.047***
WIDOWED	-0.073	-0.035	-0.016	0.016	0.017**
DIVORCED	-0.030	-0.008	-0.043	-0.038	-0.006
SEPARATED	-0.059	-0.017	0.006	-0.022	-0.002
SINGLE	-0.050	0.057	-0.006	-0.043	-0.029***
<i>N</i>	480	530	859	481	19,234
ADJ. R-SQUARED	0.3743	0.4521	0.5701	0.6866	0.3915
<i>F</i>	16.08***	23.98***	60.88***	56.34***	652.33***

Level of significance: * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$; *** = $p < .001$; Beta values

Table 41 continued.

VARIABLE	TAIWAN	SOUTH AFRICA	SOUTH KOREA	DOMINICAN REPUBLIC	All
MAN/EMPL. REL.	0.214***	0.337***	0.101*	0.143**	0.259***
COWORKER REL.	0.092**	0.030	0.140**	-0.006	0.088***
JOB AUTONOMY	0.010	0.012	0.013	-0.017	0.037***
INTER. WORK	0.235***	0.186***	0.340***	0.184***	0.310***
JOB SECURITY	0.135***	0.067	0.116*	0.010	0.068***
PAY	0.156***	0.034	0.105*	0.233***	0.092***
PROM. OPPS.	-0.003	0.081*	0.048	0.098*	0.067***
WORKLOAD	-0.129***	-0.069*	-0.064	-0.016	-0.078***
PHYSICAL EFFORT	0.022	-0.081*	-0.083	-0.030	0.007
DANGER	-0.054	-0.048	0.064	-0.016	-0.017**
FULL/PART-TIME	-0.065*	-0.103***	0.005	-0.018	-0.007
SELF EMPLOYED	0.008	0.103***	-	0.019	0.029***
GENDER	-0.019	0.047	0.012	0.054	0.020***
AGE	0.019	0.055	0.139*	0.085*	0.039***
YEARS OF EDUC.	0.015	0.072*	-0.011	0.050	-0.047***
WIDOWED	-0.028	0.010	-0.004	0.074	0.017**
DIVORCED	-0.033	0.011	0.001	-0.027	-0.006
SEPARATED	-0.030	0.052	0.013	0.024	-0.002
SINGLE	-0.061	0.006	-0.044	0.020	-0.029***
<i>N</i>	990	665	491	606	19,234
ADJ. R-SQUARED	0.3575	0.4608	0.3176	0.2339	0.3915
<i>F</i>	29.96***	30.87***	13.67***	10.72***	652.33***

Level of significance: * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$; *** = $p < .001$; Beta values

REFERENCES

- Acemoglu, D., Johnson, S., & Robinson, J.A. (2002). Institutions as the fundamental cause of long-run growth, in P. Aghion & S.N. Durlauf (Eds.). *The handbook of economic growth*, North-Holland, Amsterdam. (pp. 385-471).
- Albrecht, S.L., & Heaton, T.B. (1984). Secularization, higher education, and religiosity. *Review of Religious Research*, Vol. 26(1).
- Alderfer, C. P. (1972). *Existence, relatedness, and growth: Human needs in organizational settings*. New York: Free Press.
- Allan, J. P., & Scruggs, L. A. (2006). Social stratification and welfare regimes for the 21st century: Revisiting the 'three worlds of welfare capitalism.' Paper prepared for delivery at the 15th International Conference of Europeanists, Chicago, IL, March 30-April 1.
- Amin, A., Ed. (1994). *Post-Fordism: A reader*. Oxford, Blackwell.
- Anderson, B. (2000). *Doing the dirty work?: The global politics of domestic labour*. London; New York: Zed Books.
- Anton, C., Garrido, M.J., & Perez, P. (2005). Determinants of sales manager job satisfaction: An analysis of spanish industrial firms. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, Vol. 16(1), 1934-54.
- Appelbaum, S., & Kamal, R. (2001). An analysis of the utilization and effectiveness of nonfinancial incentives in small business. *Journal of Management Development*, Vol. 19(9), 733-63.
- Argyle, M. (1989). *The social psychology of work*. Harmondsworth: Penguin.
- Arrighi, G. (1994). *The long twentieth century*. London: Verso.
- Baca, G. (2004). Legends of Fordism. *Social Analysis*, Vol. 48(3), 171-180.
- Bacharach, S. B. (1989). Organizational theories: Some criteria for evaluation. *Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 14(4), 496-515.

- Bal, P., Chiaburu, D., & Jansen, P. (2010). Psychological contract breach and work performance. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, Vol. 25(3)*, 252-273.
- Balloffet, P., Darmon, R., & Rigaux-Bricmont, B. (2003) Designing sales force satisfying selling positions: A conjoint measurement approach. *Industrial Marketing Management, Vol. 32(6)*, 501-15.
- Beaty, D. (1990). Re-examining the link between job characteristics and job satisfaction. *Journal of Social Psychology, Vol. 130(1)*, 131-132.
- Bernstein, J., Mishel, L., & Schmitt, J. (2001). *The State of working America*. Ithaca, NY: Cornell University Press.
- Benner, C. (2002). *Work in the new economy: Flexible labor markets in silicon valley*. Malden, MA: Blackwell.
- Bhuiyan, S., & Menguc, B., (2004). Research note: Career stage effects on job characteristic-job satisfaction relationships among guest worker salespersons. *Journal of Personal Selling and Sales Management, Vol. 24(3)*, 215-227.
- Blair, C. A., Hoffman, B. J., Meriac, J. P., & Woehr, D. J. (2007). Expanding the criterion domain? A quantitative review of OCB literature. *Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol. 92(2)*, 555-566.
- Blau, G. (1994). Developing and testing a taxonomy of lateness behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol. 79*, 959-70.
- Boles, J., Madupalli, R., Rutherford, B., & Wood, J. A. (2007). The relationship of facets of salesperson job satisfaction with affective organizational commitment. *Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing, Vol. 22(5)*, 311-321.
- Boli, J., Francisco O., Meyer, J. W., & Ramirez, F., & Thomas, G.M. (1997). World society and the nation-state. *The American Journal of Sociology, Vol. 103*, 144-181.
- Bono, J., Judge, T., & Locke, E. (2000). Personality and job satisfaction: The mediating role of job characteristics. *Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol. 85(2)*, 237-249.
- Bono, J. E., Judge, T. A., Patton, G. K., & Thoresen, C. J. (2001). The job satisfaction-job performance relationship: A qualitative and quantitative review. *Psychological Bulletin, Vol. 127(3)*, 376-407.
- Bornschiefer, V., Chase-Dunn, C., & Rubinson, R. (1978). Cross national evidence of the effects of foreign investment and aid on economic growth and inequality: a survey of findings and a reanalysis, *American Journal of Sociology, Vol. 84(3)*, 651-83.

- Bosker, R. J., & Snijders, T. A. B. (2003). *Multilevel analysis*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Brenner, Robert. (1976). Agrarian class structure and economic development in pre-industrial Europe. *Past and Present*, Vol. 70, 30-75.
- Brockner, J. (2003). Unpacking country effects: On the need to operationalize the psychological determinants of cross-national differences. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, Vol. 25, 333-367.
- Brown, S. P. (1996). "A meta-analysis and review of organizational research on job involvement. *Psychological Bulletin*, Vol. 120(2), 235-255.
- Bryk, A. S., & Raudenbush, S. W. (1992). *Hierarchical linear models*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.
- Bryk, A. S., & Raudenbush, S. W. (2002). *Hierarchical linear models* (2nd ed.). Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.
- Byrne, B. M., & Campbell, T. L. (1999). Cross-cultural comparisons and the presumptions of equivalent measurement and theoretical structure: A look beneath the surface." *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, Vol. 30, 555-574.
- Carlson, J.H., & Mellor, S. (2004). Gender-related effects in the job-design-job-satisfaction relationship: an international approach. *Sex Roles: A Journal of Research*, 51(3-4), 237-247.
- Carson, K. P., Kinicki, A. J., McKee-Ryan, F. M., & Schriesheim, C. A. (2002). Assessing the construct validity of the job descriptive index: A review and meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol. 87(1), 14-32.
- Chase-Dunn, C. (1989). *Global formation: structures of the world-economy*. New York: Basil Blackwell.
- Chase-Dunn, C. (1982). World division of labor and the development of city systems: A longitudinal cross-national study. *Comparative Research*, Vol. 9(3), 3-9.
- Chase-Dunn, C., & Hall, T. D. (1992). World-systems and modes of production: Toward the comparative study of transformations. *Humboldt Journal of Social Relations*, Vol. 18(1), 81-117.
- Cheung, G. W., & Rensvold, R. B. (2000). Assessing extreme and acquiescence response sets in cross-cultural research using structural equations modeling. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, Vol. 31, 160-186.

- Chen, H., & Chiu, S. (2005). Relationship between job characteristics and organizational citizenship behavior: The mediational role of job satisfaction. *Social Behavior and Personality, Vol. 33*(6), 523-539.
- Church, A., & Judge, T. A. (2000). Job satisfaction: Research and practice, in C. L. Cooper & E. A. Locke (Eds.) *Industrial and organizational psychology: Linking theory with practice*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Clark, A. E., & Oswald, A. J. (1996). Satisfaction and comparison income. *Journal of Public Economics, Vol. 104*, 359-381.
- Clark, K., Peters, S., & Tomlinson, M. (2005). The determinants of lateness: Evidence from British workers. *Scottish Journal of Political Economy, Vol. 52*(2), 282-304.
- Clifton, R.A. (1983). Socioeconomic status and educational performances: A comparison of students in England and New Zealand. *International Journal of Comparative Sociology, Vol. 24*, 187-199.
- Clow, K.E., Kash, T.J., & Rogers, J.D. (1994). Increasing the job satisfaction of service personnel. *Journal of Services Marketing, Vol. 8*(21), 14–26.
- Cooper, C. L., Faragher, B., & Rout, U. (1989). Mental health, job satisfaction, and job stress among general practitioners. *BMJ (Clinical Research Ed.), Vol. 298*(6670), 366-370.
- Davey, J., Obst, P., & Sheehan, M. (2001). Demographic and workplace characteristics which add to the prediction of stress and job satisfaction within the police workplace. *Journal of Police and Criminal Psychology, Vol. 16*(1), 29-39.
- Davis, A. J., Markovits, Y., & Van Dick, R. (2007). Organizational commitment profiles and job satisfaction among Greek private and public sector employees. *International Journal of Cross Cultural Management, Vol. 7*(1), 77-99.
- Davis, K., & Newstrom, J. (1999). *Comportamiento humano en el trabajo: comportamiento organizaciona* (10th ed.). Mexico City, Mexico: McGraw-Hill.
- De Cuyper, N., & De Witte, H. (2006). The impact of job insecurity and contract type on attitudes, well-being and behavioural reports: A psychological contract perspective. *Journal of Occupational & Organizational Psychology, 79*(3), 395-409.
- De Cuyper, N., & De Witte, H. (2007). Job insecurity in temporary versus permanent workers: Associations with attitudes, well-being, and behaviour. *Work & Stress, Vol. 21*(1), 65-84.

- DeHart-Davis, L., & Pandey, S.K. (2005). Red tape and public employees: Does perceived rule dysfunction alienate managers? *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory*, Vol. 15(1), 133-148.
- DeSantis, V.S., & Durst, S.L. (1997). The determinants of job satisfaction among federal, state, and local government employees. *State and Local Government Review*, Vol. 29(1), 7-16.
- De Vliert, E., & Huang, X. (2003). Where intrinsic job satisfaction fails to work: National moderators of intrinsic motivation. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, Vol. 24(2), 159-179.
- Diener, C., Diener, E., & Diener, M. (1995). Factors predicting the subjective well-being of nations. *Journal of Personality Social Psychology*, Vol. 69, 851-864.
- Dorfman, P.W., Gupta, V., Hanges, P.J., House, R.J., & Mansour, J. (2004). *Culture, leadership, and organizations: The GLOBE study of 62 societies*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Dowling, P.J., & Welch, D.E. (2008). *International human resource management: Managing people in a multinational context*. Mason, OH: Thomson/South Western, cop.
- Dwyer, D., & Ganster, D. (1991). The effects of job demands and control on employee attendance and satisfaction. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, Vol. 12(7), 595-608.
- Ellickson, M.C. (2002). Determinants of job satisfaction of municipal government employees. *Public Personnel Management*, Vol. 31(3), 343-58.
- Elovainio, M., Leino, T., Lindfors, S., Luukkonen, P., Meretoja, O., & Töyry, R. (2007). Job satisfaction, work ability and life satisfaction among Finnish anaesthesiologists. *Acta Anaesthesiologica Scandinavica*, Vol. 51(7), 815-822.
- Epsing-Andersen, G. (1985). *Politics against markets*. Princeton: Princeton University Press.
- Esbenshade, J.L. (2004). *Monitoring sweatshops: Workers, consumers, and the global apparel industry*. Philadelphia : Temple University Press.
- Eskildsen, J.K., Kristensen, K., & Westlund, A.H. (2004). Work motivation and job satisfaction in the Nordic Countries. *Employee Relations*, Vol 26(2), 122-136.
- Eskildsen, J., Kristensen, K., & Westlund, A. H. (2004). Work motivation and job satisfaction in the Nordic countries. *Employee Relations*, Vol. 26(2), 122-136.

- Evans, P. (1994). The eclipse of the state? Reflections on stateness in an era of globalization. *World Politics, Vol. 50*, 62-87.
- Evans, P. (1995). *Embedded autonomy: States and industrial transformation*. Princeton: Princeton University Press.
- Evans, P., Ruschemeyer, D., & Skocpol, T. (1985). *Bringing the state back in*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Feimer, S.H., Larsen, R., & Traut, C.A. (2000). Hanging on or fading out? Job satisfaction and the long-term worker. *Public Personnel Management, Vol. 29(3)*, 343-51.
- Fischer, R. (2004). Standardization to account for cross-cultural response bias: A classification of score adjustment procedures and review of research in *JCCP*. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, Vol. 35(3)*, 263-282.
- Flanagan, R.J. (2006). *Globalization and labor conditions: Working conditions and worker rights in a global economy*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Fligstein, N., & Merand, F. (2002). Globalization or Europeanization: Changes in the European economy. *Acta Sociologica, Vol. 45(1)*, 7-22.
- Freeman, R. (1978). Job satisfaction as an economic variable. *American Economic Review, Vol. 68*, 135-41.
- Feldman, D. C., & Turnley, W.H. (2000). Re-examining the effects of psychological contract violations: unmet expectations and job dissatisfaction as mediators. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, Vol. 21(1)*, 25-42.
- Ferris, G.R., & Fried, Y. X. (2006). The validity of the job characteristics model: A review and meta-analysis. *Personnel Psychology, Vol. 40(2)*, 287-322.
- Finlay, W., Vallas, S.P., & Wharton, A.S. (2008). *The sociology of work: Structures and inequalities*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Fosam, E.B., Grimsley, M.F.J., & Wisher, S.J. (1998). Exploring models for employee satisfaction; with particular reference to a police force. *Total Quality Management, Vol. 9(2-3)*, 235-47.
- Fulford, M. (2005). That's not fair!: The test of a model of organizational justice, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment among hotel employees. *Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality & Tourism, Vol. 4(1)*, 73-84.

- Gaertner, S., Griffith, R., & Hom, P. (2000). A meta-analysis of antecedents and correlates of employee turnover: Update, moderator tests, and research implications for the next millennium. *Journal of Management*, Vol. 26(3), 463-488.
- Gellatly, I., & Luchak, A. (2002). How pension accrual affects job satisfaction. *Journal of Labor Research* Vol. 23(1), 145-162.
- Gazioglu, S., & Tansel, A. (2006). Job satisfaction in Britain: Individual and job related factors. *Applied Economics*, Vol. 38(10), 1163-1171.
- Gill, A., & Lundsgaarde, E. (2007). State welfare spending and religiosity: A cross national analysis. *Japanese Journal of Political Science*, Vol. 8, 327-339.
- Gilpin, R. (2001). *Global political economy: Understanding the international economic order*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.
- Glisson, C., & Durick, M. (1988). Predictors of job satisfaction and organizational commitment in human service organizations. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, Vol. 33, 61-81.
- Graham, W. K., Lee, R., & McCabe, D. J. (1983). Multivariate r between job characteristics and job satisfaction in the public sector: A triple cross-validation study. *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, Vol. 18(1), 47-63.
- Graham, L. (1993). Inside a Japanese transplant: A critical view. *Work and Occupations*, Vol. 20, 147-173.
- Gregory, S. (2007). *The devil behind the mirror: Globalization and politics in the Dominican Republic*. Berkeley: University of California Press.
- Greguras, G. J., Schleicher, D. J., & Watt, J. D. (2004). Reexamining the job satisfaction-performance relationship: The complexity of attitudes. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol. 89(1), 165-77.
- Hackman, J. R., & Oldham, G.R. (1976). Motivation through the design of work: Test of a theory. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, Vol. 16, 250-279.
- Hackman, J.R., & Oldham, G.R. (1980). *Job redesign*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Hahm, S.D., Jung, K.H., & Moon, M.J. (2007). Do age, gender, and sector affect job satisfaction? Results from the Korean labor and income panel data. *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, Vol. 27(2), 125-46.

- Hall, P. (1999). The political economy of Europe in an era of interdependence. In H. Kitschelt (Ed.). *Continuity and change in contemporary capitalism*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press. (pp 135-163).
- Hall, P.A., & Soskice, D. (Eds.). (2001). *Varieties of capitalism: The institutional foundations of comparative advantage*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Halman, L., Pettersson, T., & Verweij, J. (1999). The religious factor in contemporary society: The differential impact of religion on the private and public sphere in comparative perspective. *International Journal of Comparative Sociology*, Vol. 40, 141-160.
- Haley-Lock, A. (2008). Happy doing good? How workers' career orientations and job satisfaction relate in grassroots human services. *Journal of Community Practice*, Vol. 16(2), 143-63.
- Hamermesh, D.S. (2001). The changing distribution of job satisfaction. *Journal of Human Resources*, Vol. 36(1), 1-30.
- Handel, M. J. (2005). Trends in perceived job quality, 1989 to 1998. *Work and Occupations*, Vol. 32(1), 66-94.
- Hantrais, L., & Mangen, S. P. (1996). *Cross-national research methods in the social sciences*. London: New York.
- Hardt, M., & Negri, A. (2000). *Empire*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
- Harrison, B. (1994). *Lean and mean: The changing landscape of corporate power in the age of flexibility*. New York: Basic Books.
- Harter, J. K., Hayes, T. L., & Schmidt, F. L. (2002). Business-unit-level relationship between employee satisfaction, employee engagement, and business outcomes: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol. 87(2), 268-279.
- Helco, H. (1974). *Modern social politics in Britain and Sweden*. New Haven: Yale University Press.
- Hersey, P., & Blanchard, K. H. (1982). *Management of organizational behaviour*. Eaglewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Herzberg, F., Mausner, B., & Snyderman, B. B. (1959). *The Motivation to work*. New York: John Wiley and Sons.

- Heymann, J. (2003). *Global inequalities at work: Work's impact on the health of individuals, families, and societies*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Hicks, A., & Swank, D. (1992). Politics, institutions, and welfare spending in industrialized democracies, 1960-82. *American Journal of Sociology*, Vol. 86, 668-710.
- Hill, R., & Nanere, M. (2006). Expectations and satisfaction in channel member relationships in the Victorian (Australia) fruit industry. *Journal of Food Products Marketing*, Vol. 12(2), 27-46.
- Hirschman, A. (1945). *National power and the structure of foreign trade*. Berkeley: University of California Press.
- Hirst, P., & Zeitlin, J. (1991). Flexible specialization versus post-Fordism: Theory, evidence and policy implications. *Economy and Society*, Vol. 20, 1-56.
- Hodkinson, P. (1997). Neo-Fordism and teacher professionalism. *Teacher Development*, Vol. 1(1), 69-82.
- Hodson, R. (1985). Workers comparisons. *Social Science Quarterly*, Vol. 66, 266-80.
- Hodson, R. (2002). Demography or respect?: Work group demography versus organizational dynamics as determinants of meaning and satisfaction at work. *The British Journal of Sociology*, Vol. 53(2), 291-317.
- Hofmann, D.A. (1997). An overview of the logic and rationale of hierarchical linear models. *Journal of Management*, Vol. 23(6), 723-744.
- Hofstede, G. (1980). *Culture's consequences: International differences in work-related values*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- Hom, P. W., & Kinicki, A. J. (2001). Toward a greater understanding of how dissatisfaction drives employee turnover. *Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 44(5), 975-987.
- Hsu, E., & Kotorov, R. (2001). A Road-map for creating efficient corporate internal labour markets. *Career Development International*, Vol. 7(1), 37-46.
- Huber, E., & Stephens, J. (2001). *Development and crisis of the welfare state: Parties and policies in global markets*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Humphrey, S. E., & Morgeson, F. P. (2006). The work design questionnaire (WDG): Developing a comprehensive measure for assessing job design and the nature of work. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol. 91(6), 1321-339.

- Hunt, J.W., & Saul, P.N. (1975). The Relationship of age, tenure, and job satisfaction in males and females. *Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 18, 690-702.
- Hunt, R., Near, J., & Rice, R. (1980). The Job-satisfaction/ life-satisfaction relationship: A review of empirical research. *Basic & Applied Social Psychology*, Vol. 1(1), 37-64.
- International Monetary Fund (IMF). (2005). ESDS International, (Mimas) University of Manchester.
- International Social Survey Program (ISSP). INTERNATIONAL SOCIAL SURVEY PROGRAM: WORK ORIENTATIONS I, II, and III; 1989, 1997, 2005 [Computer file]. ICPSR version. Koeln, Germany: Zentralarchiv fuer Empirische Sozialforschung [producer], 1999. Koeln, Germany: Zentralarchiv fuer Empirische Sozialforschung/Ann Arbor, MI: Inter-university Consortium for Political and Social Research [distributors], 2000.
- Irving, P., & Montes, S. (2009). Met expectations: The effects of expected and delivered inducements on employee satisfaction. *Journal of Occupational & Organizational Psychology*, Vol. 82(2), 431-451.
- Isaac, L. (1981). Comparative economic inequality. *International Journal of Comparative Sociology*, Vol. 22, 62-85.
- Jamison, C. S., Jamison, P. L., & Wallace, M. (2004). Contemporary work characteristics, stress, and ill health. *American Journal of Human Biology*, Vol. 16 (1), 43-56.
- Judge, T. A., & Watanabe, S. (1993). Another look at the job satisfaction—life satisfaction relationship. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol. 78, 939-948.
- Kalleberg, A. (1977). Work values & job rewards: A theory of job satisfaction. *American Sociological Review*, Vol. 42, 124-43.
- Kalleberg, A.L., & Loscocco, K.A. (1983). Aging, values and rewards explaining age differences in job satisfaction. *American Sociological Review*, Vol. 48, 78-90.
- Karasek, R. A. Jr. (1979). Job demands, job decision latitude, and mental strain: Implications for job redesign. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, Vol. 24, 285-308.
- Katzenstein, P. (1985). *Small states in world markets: Industrial policy in Europe*. Ithaca: Cornell University Press.
- Kekic, L. (2007). The Economist Intelligence Unit's index of democracy . *The Economist*. Retrieved November 20, 2009, from http://www.economist.com/media/pdf/Democracy_Index_2007_v3.pdf

- Kirkman, B.L., & Shapiro, D.L. (2001). The impact of cultural values on job satisfaction and organizational commitment in self-managing work teams: The mediating role of employee resistance. *Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 44(3), 557-569.
- Kitschelt, H., Lange, P., Marks, G., & Stephens, D. (Eds.). (1999). *Continuity and change in contemporary capitalism*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Klein, R. (1991). Risks and benefits of comparative studies: Notes from another shore. *The Milbank Quarterly*, Vol. 69(2), 275-291.
- Kohli, At. (2004). *State-directed development: Political power and industrialization in the global periphery*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
- Korpi, W. (1983). *The democratic class struggle*. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.
- Kozak, M., & Tutuncu, O. (2007). An investigation of factors affecting job satisfaction. *International Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Administration*, Vol. 8(1), 1-19.
- Kreitner, R., & Kinicki, A. (2008). *Organizational behavior 8th edition*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Kristof-Brown, A.L. (1996). Person-organization fit: An integrative review of its conceptualizations, measurement and implications. *Personnel Psychology*, Vol. 49(1), 1-49.
- Kunovich, R. M., & Kunovich, S. (2008). Gender dependence and attitudes toward the distribution of household labor: A comparative and multilevel analysis. *International Journal of Comparative Sociology*, Vol. 49, 395 - 427.
- Lee, E. (1997). Globalization and labour standards: A review of issues. *International Labour Review*, Vol. 136(2), 173-190.
- Lee, T. (1998). Job satisfaction leads to turnover. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, Vol. 2, 263-271.
- Leigh, J., & Lust, J. (1988). Determinants of employee tardiness. *Work and Occupations*, Vol. 15(1), 78-95.
- Macías, E.F., & Muñoz de Bustillo Llorente, R. (2005). Job satisfaction as an indicator of the quality of work. *The Journal of Socio-Economics*, Vol. 34, 656-673
- Mann, Michael. (1993). *The sources of social power, Volume 2: The rise of classes and nation states, 1760-1914*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- Markus, H.R., & Kitayama, S. (1991). Culture and the self. Implications for cognition, emotion, and motivation. *Psychological Review*, Vol. 98(2), 224-253.
- Maslow, A. H. (1943). A theory of human motivation. *Psychological Review*, Vol. 50, 370-396.
- Mendenhall, M. E., Oddou, G.R., & Stahl, G.K. (2007). *Readings and cases in international human resource management*. New York: Routledge.
- Modelski, G. (1978). The long cycle of global politics and the nation-state. *Comparative Studies in Society and History*, Vol. 20, 214-235.
- Modelski, G., & Thompson, W. R. (1995). *Leading sectors and world powers: The coevolution of global politics and economics*. Columbia, SC: University of South Carolina Press.
- Moore, B. Jr. (1966). *Social origins of dictatorship and democracy: Lord and peasant in the making of the modern world*. Boston: Beacon Press.
- Müller, W. (2005). Education and youth integration into European labour markets. *International Journal of Comparative Sociology*, Vol. 46, 461-485.
- Munck, R. (2002). *Globalisation and labour: The new great transformation*. New York, NY: Zed Books.
- Organisation for Economic Development and Cooperation, ESDS International, (Mimas) University of Manchester.
- Oshagbemi, T. (2000). How satisfied are academics with their primary tasks of teaching, research and administration and management? *International Journal of Sustainability in Higher Education*, Vol. 1(2), 124-36.
- Orloff, A. S., Weir, M., & Skocpol, T. (1988). Introduction: Understanding American social politics. In *The politics of social policy in the United States*. M. Weir, A.S. Orloff, & T. Skocpol (Eds.). Princeton: Princeton University Press. (pp. 293-312).
- Pampel, F., & Williamson, J. (1989). *Age, class, politics, and the welfare state*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Perrucci, C.C., & Perrucci, R. (2007). *The transformation of work in the new economy: Sociological readings*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Piore, M. J., & Sabel, C. (1984). *The second industrial divide*. New York: Basic Books.
- Polanyi, K. (1944). *The great transformation*. Boston: Beacon.

- Reed, S.R. (2007). Analyzing secularization and religiosity in Asia. *Japanese Journal of Political Science*, Vol. 8, 327-339.
- Rohrbach, D. (2009). Sector bias and sector dualism: The knowledge society and inequality. *International Journal of Comparative Sociology*, Vol. 50, 510-536.
- Ronan, W. (1970). Individual and situational variables relating to job satisfaction. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol. 54(1), 1-31.
- Rousseau, D. M. (1985). Issues of level in organizational research: Multi-level and cross-level perspectives. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, Vol. 7(1), 1-37.
- Pulakos, E., & Schmitt, N. (1985). Predicting job satisfaction from life satisfaction: Is there a general satisfaction factor? *International Journal of Psychology*, Vol. 20(1), 155-167.
- Shandra, J.M., Ross, R.J., & London, B. (2003). Global capitalism and the flow of foreign direct investment to non-core nations, 1980-1996: A quantitative, cross-national analysis. *International Journal of Comparative Sociology*, Vol. 44, 199-238.
- Sims Jr., H.P., & Szilagyi, A.D. (1976). Job characteristic relationships: Individual and structural moderators. *Organizational Behavior & Human Performance*, Vol. 17(2), 211-230.
- Sklair, L. (1995). *Sociology of the global system, second edition*. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins University Press.
- Skocpol, T. (1988). The limits of the new deal system and the roots of contemporary welfare dilemmas. In *The politics of social policy in the United States*. M. A. Weir, S. Orloff, & T. Skocpol (Eds.). Princeton: Princeton University Press. (pp. 293-312).
- Smith, P.C., Kendall, L. M., & Hulin, C. L. (1969). *The Measurement of satisfaction in work and retirement*. Chicago, IL: Rand McNally.
- Sousa-Pouza A., & Sousa-Pouza A. (2000). Well-being at work: A cross-national analysis of the levels and determinants of job satisfaction, *Journal of Socio-Economics*, Vol. 29, 517-538.
- Spector, P. (1997). *Job satisfaction: Application, assessment, causes and consequences*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Stephens, J. D. (1979). *The transition from capitalism to socialism*. London: Macmillan.

- Stephens, J. D. (1979). Class formation and class consciousness. *British Journal of Sociology, Vol. 30*, 389-414.
- Stockard, J., & O'Brien, R.M. (2006). Cohort variations in suicide rates among families of nations: An analysis of cohorts born from 1875 through 1985. *International Journal of Comparative Sociology, Vol. 47*, 5-33.
- Sweet, S.A., & Meiksins, P. (2008). *Changing contours of work: Jobs and opportunities in the new economy*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Pine Forge Press.
- Swinnerton, K.A, & Schoepfle, G.K. (1994). Labor standards in the context of a global economy. *Monthly Labor Review, Vol. 117(9)*, 52-58.
- The World Factbook 2005*. Washington, DC: Central Intelligence Agency, 2005.
- The World Factbook 1997*. Washington, DC: Central Intelligence Agency, 1997.
- Thye, S.R., & Yoon, J. (2002). A dual process model of organizational commitment: Job satisfaction and organizational support. *Work and Occupations, Vol. 29(1)*, 97-125.
- Tietjen, M.A., & Myers, R.M. (1998). Motivation and job satisfaction. *Management Decision, Vol. 36(4)*, 226-231.
- Tilly, C. (1990). *Coercion, capital and European states: AD 990-1990*. Cambridge: Blackwell.
- Totterdell, P., Wood, S., & Wall, T. (2006). An intra-individual test of the demands control model: A weekly diary study of psychological strain in portfolio workers. *Journal of Occupational & Organizational Psychology, Vol. 79(1)*, 63-84.
- Tsutsumi, A. (2005). Psychosocial factors and health: Community and workplace study. *Journal of Epidemiology, Vol. 15(3)*, 65-91.
- United Nations Common Database, ESDS International, University of Manchester.
- Voydanoff, P. (1980). Perceived job characteristics and job satisfaction among men and women. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, Vol. 5(2)*, 177-186.
- Vroom, V. (1964). *Work and motivation*. New York: Wiley.
- Wallerstein, I. (2000). *The essential Wallerstein*. New York: New Press.
- Wallerstein, I. (1974). The rise and demise of the capitalist world system. *Comparative Studies in Society and History, Vol. 16(4)*, 387-415.

- Whetton, D. A. (1989). What constitutes a theoretical contribution? *Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 14(4), 490-495.
- Wilensky, H. (1981). Leftism, Catholicism, and democratic corporatism. In *The development of welfare states in Europe and America*. P. Flora & A.J. Heidenheimer (Eds.). (pp. 314-378).
- Williams, E. S., Konrad, T. R., Scheckler, W.E., Pathman, D. E., Linzer, M., McMurray, J., & Schwartz, M. (2000). The effects of job satisfaction and perceived stress on the physical and mental health and withdraw intentions of physicians. *Academy of Management Proceedings*. C1-C6.
- World Bank. (2005). World Development Indicators, ESDS International, University of Manchester.
- Wright, B., & Kim, S. (2004). Participation's influence on job satisfaction: The importance of job characteristics. *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, Vol. 24(1), 18-40.