

## **Comparative International Differences in Intrinsic and Extrinsic Job Quality Characteristics and Worker Satisfaction, 1989-2005**

**Jonathan H. Westover, Ph.D.**

Director of Academic Service Learning  
Assistant Professor of Management  
Woodbury School of Business  
Utah Valley University  
800 W. University Parkway, MS-119  
Orem, UT 84058-5999, USA.

### **Abstract**

*In this research, I apply and extend Handel's (2005) model for understanding job characteristics and job satisfaction in the context of a changing global environment. Prior research has indicated that the nature of work has changed dramatically in recent years in response to economic shifts and an increasingly global economy. However, there is little agreement on whether the overall quality of work has improved or declined over that period. Furthermore, less is known about changes in job satisfaction and its various indicators over time, based on how the workers feel. Finally, even less is known about the overall comparative quality of work and job satisfaction across the global economy. In this study I use non-panel longitudinal data from the International Social Survey Program (Work Orientations I, II, and III: 1989, 1997, 2005) to first conduct a descriptive comparative analysis of job quality and job satisfaction. I then use Handel's (2005) intrinsic/extrinsic job satisfaction model to perform OLS regression of job satisfaction and its determinants for each separate country within each of the three ways of data to see cross-national differences in overall model predictability and in the various intrinsic and extrinsic job characteristics that impact job satisfaction in relation to a changing global economy.*

### **Introduction**

Since Happock's seminal work on the topic in 1935, job satisfaction has continued to generate interest across disciplines, from psychology (Argyle, 1989) and sociology (Kalleberg and Loscocco, 1983; Hodson, 1985), to economics (Freeman, 1978; Hamermesh, 2001), management sciences (Hunt and Saul, 1975), and public administration (Durst and DeSantis, 1997; Wright and Kim, 2004; Jung *et al.*, 2007). The interest in job satisfaction, as much for researchers as for practitioners, is due to several reasons. Satisfied workers are more productive (Appelbaum and Kamal, 2000), deliver higher quality of work (Tietjen and 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 (see Westover, 2011, 2010a, 2010b; Taylor and Westover, 2011; Westover and Taylor, 2010).

The overall purpose in conducting this research is to (1) empirically test (using various bivariate descriptive procedures and OLS regression) significant, cross-national differences in job satisfaction and its determinants.

## **Literature Review Overview**

### **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 and 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 (Kristof-Brown, 1996; Traut *et al.*, 2000; Ellickson, 2002). 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 and Oswald, 1996; Davis and 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).

### **Why Examining Work Quality and Job Satisfaction is *Still* Important**

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. Jamison, et al. provides 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]” (2004:43).

Therefore, as work makes up such a dominate 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 and 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, each of which have broad implications for individual workers, firms, and the larger society. Each will be explored and described briefly in the following pages.

**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

### *Discussion of Variables*

#### **Description of Data**

This research utilizes non-panel 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<sup>1</sup>. The Work Orientations module focuses on the areas of general attitudes toward work and leisure, work organization, and work content<sup>2</sup>. 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 are individuals within the separate sovereign nations. In addition to examining one large sample including all respondents from all participating countries, a separate sample for each country is also examined to determine which job characteristics best predict job satisfaction in that particular country and then make cross-national comparisons (see also Westover, 2008a, 2008b, 2009, 2010a, 2010b).

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.

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>.

**Table 2: Study Countries by Year**

<b>1989</b>	<b>1997</b>	<b>2005</b>
West Germany	West Germany	Australia
Great Britain	East Germany	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

### ***Operationalization of Variables***

This research follows Westover's (2008a, 2008b, 2009, 2010b) job satisfaction model (based on Kalleberg's 1977 findings and Handel's 2005 study) 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 Spector, 1997; Souza-Poza and Souza-Poza, 2000; Munoz de Bustillo Llorente and Fernandez Macias, 2005; Westover, 2008a, 2008b, 2009, 2010a, 2010b). 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.

### **Key Job Quality Characteristics Related to Job Satisfaction**

All variables are single-item measures based on the survey questions below (See also Westover, 2008a, 2008b, 2010a, 2010b, 2011a, 2011b).

**Dependent Variable**

Job Satisfaction<sup>3</sup> “How satisfied are you in your main job?”

**Key Independent Variables (From the ISSP):****Intrinsic Rewards****Non-Material Rewards<sup>4</sup>**

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

**Quality of Workplace Interpersonal Relationships<sup>5</sup>**

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<sup>6</sup>**

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

**Other Work Conditions<sup>7</sup>**

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 were limited to the following, individual characteristics (see Westover, 2008a, 2008b, 2010a, 2010b, 2011a, 2011): *full-time/part-time status, self-employment status, gender, age, marital status, and education* (see Hammermesh, 1999; Souza-Poza and Souza-Poza, 2000; Hodson, 2002; Carlson and Mellor, 2004).

**Model**

Figure 1 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, 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 macro-level conditions set the stage for job quality conditions and worker satisfaction within a given nation. Furthermore, as a result of differing macro-level and differing job quality conditions, countries will have a difference in intrinsic and extrinsic work quality factors and their saliency to perceived satisfaction.

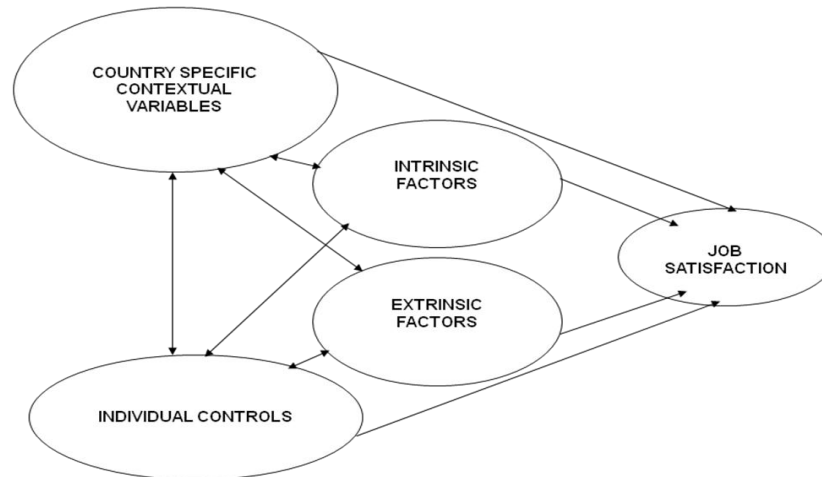
<sup>3</sup> Response categories for this variable included, (1) Completely Dissatisfied, (2) Very Dissatisfied, (3) Fairly Dissatisfied, (4) Neither Satisfied nor Dissatisfied, (5) Fairly Satisfied, (6) Very Satisfied, (7) Completely Satisfied, (8) Can't Choose, and (9) No Answer.

<sup>4</sup> 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.

<sup>5</sup> 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.

<sup>6</sup> 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.

<sup>7</sup> 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.

**Figure 1: Factors Impacting Work Characteristics and Job Satisfaction**

### ***Methodological Description***

#### **Statistical Methodology**

First, this research uses data from the International Social Survey to perform a descriptive statistical analysis of work characteristics and job satisfaction for individual countries and across nations. 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, both aggregate and country-specific OLS regression models of the impact of individual work characteristics on job satisfaction were generated to provide additional comparison between countries<sup>8</sup>.

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 (see Handel, 2005; Westover, 2008a, 2008b, 2009, 2010a, 2010b, 2010c). 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).

#### **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 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" (2000:5; see also Diener et al., 1999; Westover, 2008a, 2008b, 2009, 2010a, 2010b, 2010c). 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 non-panel longitudinal nature of the data. This research uses three waves of cross-sectional data and therefore one cannot specifically test the direction of causality among the variables examined as would be possible with panel longitudinal data. However, a conceptual framework is provided that hypothesizes the path of causality in addition to utilizing non-panel longitudinal data, which enables comparison of like variables over time (see also Westover, 2008a, 2008b, 2009, 2010a, 2010b, 2010c).

<sup>8</sup> While all of these various analyses were conducted, due to length restrictions only some are provided here; others are available from the author upon request.

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 or not) cannot be included in the analysis, as data are not available for each wave of data collection across all countries of interest.

### Hypotheses

There is the possibility 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.

### Results

Table 3 shows mean changes in job satisfaction by country and wave. Specifically, for those six 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 scores from 1989 to 1997 and then a rebound from 1997 to 2005 with 2005 levels surpassing 1989 levels.

**Table 3: Mean Job Satisfaction, by County 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)



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.

Tables 4, 5, and 6 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 4, 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. 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 5 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 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 6 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 has 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

Job satisfaction was found to be significantly related to each of the main study variables in each wave of the study (1989, 1997, and 2005)<sup>9</sup>: management/employee relations, coworker relations, job autonomy, interesting work, job security, pay, promotional opportunities, workload, physical effort, and danger. The relationships of the study variables appear to be in the anticipated direction.

**Table 4: 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>

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

<sup>9</sup> Due to space limitations, complete correlation matrices for all variables for all years are available upon request.

**Table 5: 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
All	5.25	3.86	4.21	3.79	3.88	3.63	2.68	2.64	3.35	2.44	2.06

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

**Table 6: 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
All	5.25	3.88	4.17	3.77	3.80	3.61	2.74	2.72	3.33	2.53	2.08

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

**Table 6 Continued: 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
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
All	5.25	3.88	4.17	3.77	3.80	3.61	2.74	2.72	3.33	2.53	2.08

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

### Regression Results

Table 7 shows OLS regression model specifications for each country across the three waves of the study<sup>10</sup>. 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.

### Testing Hypotheses

Job satisfaction levels and its determinants were expected to differ cross-nationally. As was reported earlier, Tables 4-6 and separate ANOVA and ANCOVA mean comparison tests across countries (available upon request) 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.

<sup>10</sup> Complete regression results for each country across each wave are available upon request.

**Table 7: 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

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, more detailed country-specific OLS regression models available (available upon request) demonstrate a significant level of cross-national differences in job satisfaction and its determinants. Therefore, H1a and H1b are fully supported by these results, that there are statistically significant cross-national differences in the levels of job satisfaction and the determinants of job satisfaction.

## Conclusions

### 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 Table 3 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, one that takes into account country-contextual differences, is vitally needed.

### **Future Research**

This research has empirically demonstrated clear cross-national differences in job satisfaction and its determinates. The question remains, 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.).

### **Practical Implications**

Results show that both intrinsic and extrinsic work characteristics strongly impact worker job satisfaction. Therefore, it is important for any work organization (such as multinational corporations, global NGO's, local and national governments, and labor unions) to understand that individual workers in different countries face unique country-contextual conditions that impact their experience in the workplace.

For worker organizations, such as labor unions, findings suggest that a worker's 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.

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.

## References

- 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.
- Blau, G. (1994). Developing and testing a taxonomy of lateness behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol. 79, 959-70.
- 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.
- Clark, A. E., & Oswald, A. J. (1996). Satisfaction and comparison income. *Journal of Public Economics*, Vol. 104, 359-381.
- Darmon, R., Rigaux-Bricmont, B., & Balloffet, P. (2003) Designing sales force satisfying selling positions: A conjoint measurement approach. *Industrial Marketing Management*, Vol. 32(6), 501-15.
- Davis, K., & Newstrom, J. (1999). *Comportamiento humano en el trabajo: comportamiento organizaciona* (10th ed.). Mexico City, Mexico: McGraw-Hill.
- Diener, E., Diener, M., & Diener, C. (1995). Factors predicting the subjective well-being of nations. *Journal of Personality Social Psychology*, Vol. 69, 851-864.
- Durst, S.L., & DeSantis, V.S. (1997). The determinants of job satisfaction among federal, state, and local government employees. *State and Local Government Review*, Vol. 29(1), 7-16.
- Ellickson, M.C. (2002). Determinants of job satisfaction of municipal government employees. *Public Personnel Management*, Vol. 31(3), 343-58.
- Fosam, E.B., Grimsley, M.F.J., & Wisner, S.J. (1998). Exploring models for employee satisfaction; with particular reference to a police force. *Total Quality Management*, Vol. 9(2-3), 235-47.
- Freeman, R. (1978). Job satisfaction as an economic variable. *American Economic Review*, Vol. 68, 135-41.
- Garrido, M.J., Perez, P., & Anton, C. (2005). Determinants of sales manager job satisfaction: An analysis of spanish industrial firms. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, Vol. 16(1), 1934-54.
- Gazioglu, S., & Tansel, A. (2006). Job satisfaction in Britain: Individual and job related factors. *Applied Economics*, Vol. 38(10), 1163-1171.
- Glisson, C., & Durick, M. (1988). Predictors of job satisfaction and organizational commitment in human service organizations. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, Vol. 33, 61-81.
- Hackman, J.R., & Oldham, G.R. (1980). *Job redesign*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- 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.
- 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.
- 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.
- 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.
- 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., & Church, 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.
- Judge, T. A., & Watanabe, S. (1993). Another look at the job satisfaction—life satisfaction relationship. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol. 78, 939-948.
- Jung, K.H., & Moon, M.J., & Hahm, S.D. (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.
- 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.
- Kotorov, R., & Hsu, E. (2001). A Road-map for creating efficient corporate internal labour markets. *Career Development International*, Vol. 7(1), 37-46.
- Kreitner, R., & Kinicki, A. (2008). *Organizational behavior 8<sup>th</sup> 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.
- Lee, T. (1998). Job satisfaction leads to turnover. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, Vol. 2, 263-271.
- Muñoz de Bustillo Llorente, R., & Macías, E.F. (2005). Job satisfaction as an indicator of the quality of work. *The Journal of Socio-Economics*, Vol. 34, 656-673.
- 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.
- Rogers, J.D., Clow, K.E., & Kash, T.J. (1994). Increasing the job satisfaction of service personnel. *Journal of Services Marketing*, Vol. 8(21), 14–26.
- 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.
- Taylor, J., & Westover, J.H. (2011). Job satisfaction in the public service: The effects of public service motivation, workplace attributes and work relations. *Public Management Review*, Vol. 13(4), 1-21.
- Tietjen, M.A., & Myers, R.M. (1998). Motivation and job satisfaction. *Management Decision*, Vol. 36(4), 226-231.
- Traut, C.A., Larsen, R., & Feimer, S.H. (2000). Hanging on or fading out? Job satisfaction and the long-term worker. *Public Personnel Management*, Vol. 29(3), 343-51.
- 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.
- Tutuncu, O., & Kozak, M. (2007). An investigation of factors affecting job satisfaction. *International Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Administration*, Vol. 8(1), 1-19.
- Westover, J.H. (2011). A longitudinal analysis of changing job quality and worker satisfaction in Israel. *KCA Journal of Business Management*, Vol. 3(1), 1-14.
- Westover, J.H. (2010a). Global shifts: Changing job quality and job satisfaction determinants in socialist and post-socialist Hungary. *International Journal of Social Economics*, Vol. 37(2), 84-100.
- Westover, J.H. (2010b). Global economic shifts impacting the perceived importance of various intrinsic and extrinsic job characteristics and overall job satisfaction. *The International Journal of Knowledge, Culture, and Change Management*, Vol. 10(1), 137-149.
- Westover, J.H., & Taylor, J. (2010). International differences in job satisfaction: The effects of public service motivation, rewards and work relations. *International Journal of Productivity and Performance Management*, Vol. 59(8), 811-828.
- Westover, J.H. (2008)a. A cross-national analysis of job quality characteristics and perceived job satisfaction in a changing world economy: Implications for public administrators managing in a multicultural workforce. *International Review of Public Administration*, Vol. 13(2), 129-144.
- Westover, J.H. (2008b). Potential impacts of globalization on changing job quality and worker satisfaction: A descriptive cross-national comparative examination. *Journal of Global Business Management*, Vol. 4(1), 19-26.
- 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.
- Vroom, V. (1964). *Work and motivation*. New York: Wiley.