Respect for authority and job satisfaction: a cross-culture test

Yi Yang

Student number: 357258
Erasmus University Rotterdam
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Supervisor: Dr. Josse Delfgaauw

ABSTRACT

This thesis investigates the relationship between an individual's attitude towards authority and his/her job satisfaction and if this relationship varies between different cultural dimensions. Combining data on individual's respect for authority and job satisfaction for people in many countries with countries' scores on several cultural dimensions, it was found that the hypothesized positive relation between respect for authority and job satisfaction was only partially supported. Moreover, the expected interaction effects on job satisfaction between respect for authority and Power distance as well as Individualistic cultures (positive and negative respectively) were also only partially supported. For the Uncertainty avoidance culture, no interaction effect was found. Masculine culture appeared to have a positive interaction effect with respect for authority on job satisfaction.

Content list

1. Introduction

Most economic organizations involve authority relationships, including a superior and a subordinate. Organizations function well if the people who fulfill these roles cooperate well according to their role. However, subordinates may have different attitudes towards their superior (or authority in general). For matters of organizational structure, personnel policies, or career choice, it is worth finding out how 'respect for authority' affects people's well-being in the organization they work for, i.e. their job satisfaction. According to Spector, "more studies have been done to understand job satisfaction than for any other variable in organizations" (1997, p. vii). But in searching for causes of job satisfaction, it seems like no possible variable should be overlooked.

Knowing what affects job satisfaction is important, because having employees who are more satisfied about their job are beneficial to organizations. Freeman found that "…subjective expressions of job satisfaction are significantly related to future overt behavior, which makes satisfaction at least potentially analytically useful" (1978, p.138). Freeman's (1978) conclusion was supported by his calculations showing that job satisfaction is a significant determinant of the employees' quitting probability. Similar results were found by Delfgaauw (2007) for public sector employees: dissatisfaction increases the probability that employees start searching for other jobs. Spector (1997) mentioned three broad reasons (categories of reasons) to care for job satisfaction: first, it is a reflection of good treatment ('humanitarian perspective'); second, it may cause employee behavior that affects organizational functioning ('utilitarian perspective'); and third, it may be a reflection of organizational functioning so that problems of the organization can be found.

Examining causes of job satisfaction, the possible influence of culture should not be ignored. According to Hofstede, culture is "…the collective mental programming of the people in an environment" (1980, p.43). Because of this

mental programming, people from different countries or cultures have different values in (work) life, and consequently view and judge work aspects differently. So any relationship between a work aspect (such as 'respect for authority') and job satisfaction may be affected by cultural values.

Taking job satisfaction as a dependent variable, this thesis focuses on the relationship between a person's respect for authority and his or her job satisfaction. More specifically, it investigates how this relationship is affected by different cultures. For this purpose a large database of the World Values Survey (WVS), containing indicators of job satisfaction and respect for authority level, is combined with indicators of culture coming from research on cultural dimensions by Hofstede et al (2010). This thesis takes into account the following four cultural dimensions: Power distance, Individualism versus Collectivism, Masculinity versus Femininity, and Uncertainty avoidance. Hofstede (1980) explains *Power distance* as the extent to which it is accepted in a society that power in organizations and institutions is unequally distributed. *Individualism versus Collectivism* is a dimension showing how relatively individualistic a society is (or, in case of a low score, collectivist). Individualism represents a culture in which people are more focused on taking care for themselves, and collectivism represents a culture in which people are more focused on taking care of and loyalty towards a larger group they belong to. *Masculinity versus Femininity* shows how relatively masculine a society is (and in case of a low score, feminine). A masculine society values for example assertiveness and personal achievement; a feminine society prefers quality of life, the environment, sympathy with the unfortunate et cetera instead. Finally, *Uncertainty avoidance* is the extent to which societies prefer establishing rules and institutions that help avoid future uncertainties.

To investigate whether the effect of respect for authority on job satisfaction depends on culture (i.e. the scores for the dimensions mentioned above), models

were created containing the explanatory variables respect for authority, cultural dimensions, interaction between respect for authority and cultural dimensions, and demographic control variables. Consequently, several regression tests are run to examine the hypotheses.

As an extension of this study, a distinction will be made in the sample between respondents working in the public sector and those working in the private sector. For these two sectors, some different work characteristics regarding authority relations apply (see for instance Rainey al 1976; Mathur et al 1996; Boyne 2002). Therefore, the results showing the relationship between respect for authority and job satisfaction may differ due to sector specific characteristics (or expectations of the people working in those sectors). For the extension, a new dummy variable indicating the different sectors is added into the original models, simultaneously adding more interaction variables among respect for authority, cultural dimensions and sector.

The thesis is organized as follows. First, a literature review is presented on which several hypotheses (about the relationship between respect for authority and job satisfaction, as well as how different cultural dimensions are predicted to affect this relationship) are based. Second, the methodology is explained in combination with some data figures. Third, the results of the tests are presented and analyzed. Fourth, the results of the extension of the analysis are presented and analyzed. The concluding section contains a discussion of the findings as well as some limitations of the analysis.

2. Literature review

2.1 Job satisfaction

Job satisfaction is most commonly defined as: "... a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences"

(Locke 1976, p.1300). According to Locke (1976), the important role of job satisfaction for work was already recognized in the early twentieth century. However, the first serious attempts to study its nature and effects only started in the 1930s. Since then, much literature has been written about job satisfaction and causes of job satisfaction. Generally, there are two categories in which the studies of causes of job satisfaction can be divided. First, there are individual related factors that depend on the characteristics of the individual employee. These are the factors that an employer cannot design or influence, but only can take into account for recruitment. Second, there are job related factors that depend on the characteristics of the job itself. These are the factors that an employer can design or influence.

Some of the individual related factors are pure facts of someone (for example gender, ethnicity) and others are more subjective (such as personal work values). Several authors have written about the objective facts causing a certain level of job satisfaction. Arvey et al (1989) claimed to have set 'boundaries' by showing that about thirty percent of the variation in job satisfaction is determined by genetics (which would leave room for about seventy percent other factors). They based their conclusion on data considering monozygotic twins who had been reared apart from early age (a questionnaire about their job attitudes and some job features). Another studied factor is gender. For example, Clark (1997) confirmed that women generally report a higher job satisfaction than men. However, his analysis also suggested that the general higher level is just temporary, caused by the lower expectations of women about their job (women who were younger, higher educated, in managerial positions, in male-dominated workplaces, or whose mother had a professional job were not more satisfied than men).

There are several other studied factors that are more subjective. For example, Blood (1969) studied the relation between work values and job satisfaction

based on surveys from airmen. The result showed that work values were related to job satisfaction; especially that Protestant Ethic was a predictor of job satisfaction in general. So Blood's study found an explanation in religious work ethic. Kalleberg found similar results: "work values[1] have independent and significant effects on job satisfaction" (1977, p.141). The study of Ilies and Judge (2002) examined the effect of mood on measured job satisfaction. They found that mood was significantly associated with job satisfaction, in the way that individuals' job satisfaction moved in a similar pattern with their mood. Concerning self-efficacy, Borgogni et al (2013) show that the more confident people are about exercising control over their work and social life, and control their reactions confronting difficulties, the more likely it is they have higher job satisfaction. Another significant factor is job security. According to Theodossiou and Vasileiou (2007), there is a negative relation between the perceived risk of job loss and an employee's job satisfaction. Moreover, job satisfaction can also be influenced by the individual's perception of appraisal of work involvement exhibited by colleagues, and supervisors' support (Babin & Boles 1996). Babin and Boles also concluded that job performance and job satisfaction are positively correlated.

Job related factors of job satisfaction have been studied extensively as well. Judge et al (2010) provide a meta-analysis of the relation between pay level and both pay and job satisfaction. They found that there is only a modest (positive) effect. Searching for an explanation for this weak link, they mention the adaptation level theory. This would mean that a pay raise only temporarily gives an individual a higher satisfaction level, but that after this short experience the satisfying value will be (almost) back to the original level. Other, nonfinancial returns have also been studied in relation to job satisfaction. Although their study is limited to a specific professional field, Liu and White (2011) present

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[1] Kalleberg (1977) defined work values as the concept of values what is desirable that individuals hold with respect to their work activity.

positive effects between recognition (e.g. of achievement, prestige in organization, and praise) and job satisfaction. They also found that the most important factor was ability utilization (e.g. using own abilities, doing different things, and developing responsibility).

The strength of these job related factors are also dependent on the country. Oishi et al (1999) suggest that people in poor nations may value pay and benefit as more important aspects for job satisfaction, however people in rich nations may value self-development (meaning of working) as a more important aspect for job satisfaction. This implicates that job related changes (e.g. salary change, less job security) will have different effects on job satisfaction in different countries.

2.1.1   *Relation to life satisfaction*

Blood (1969) already indicated a correlation between job satisfaction and life satisfaction in his study. His result suggested that the work values of Protestant Ethic were positively related to satisfaction with both the work and life in general. Several other authors have studied the relation between job satisfaction and life satisfaction. Saari and Judge (2004) mention the three possible forms of relationship between these two. The first form is spillover (positive relationship), the second is segmentation (no relationship), and the third is compensation (negative relationship)[2]. Instead of trying to prove or disprove one of these forms, Judge and Watanabe (1994) conducted a study to find out which one was most common, assuming that the relationship varied for individuals. They found that the positive relationship is most common (68 per cent of the cases) and the negative relationship not so common (12 per cent of the cases). Several studies indeed concluded there is a positive relationship. For example, Qu and Zhao (2012) found a positive effect from life- on job satisfaction. Georgellis et al (2012)

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[2] A negative relationship could happen when someone is trying to compensate for lower job satisfaction by seeking more happiness outside of the work (Saari & Judge 2004).

also found a positive effect: important life events (first marriage and first child birth) boosted the job satisfaction. An example of a study confirming the opposite direction of the spillover is from Zhao et al (2011). They concluded that a 'positive affective reaction' (liking a job) had a positive effect on life satisfaction.

2.2 Respect for Authority

The concept of 'respect for authority' is from the literature harder to define. From a psychological perspective, the word 'respect' covers several themes: social rules, equality, caring, and social power (Langdon 2007). The last theme applies to respect for authority most, because authority involves power over someone or something. But respect for authority can always be interpreted differently, depending on opinion or the situation. Perhaps the most important feature of the concept is that it is the attitude or feeling of the individual him- or herself. Ashforth stated that it "...matters little if managers are supervising in a nonauthoritarian manner if the opposite is perceived to be true by their subordinates. As far as individuals are concerned, climate is no more than what they believe it to be'' (1985, p.839)[3].

Several factors may determine respect for authority. Some of these factors are dependent on the individual who may have or not have respect for authority. Burke et al. (2007) gave an overview of a closely related concept, 'trust in leadership'. They listed the features that may affect a subordinate's level of trust. These are propensity to trust, attribution style (subjective explanation of an event and the leader's responsibility for that), perceived risk (of trusting), leadership prototype (general expectations of leadership), and prior history with the leader.

But other authors address the notion that respect for authority mainly depends on the features or behavior of the authority itself. Van Prooijen et al

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[3] 'Climate' in this quote is defined as "...a shared and enduring molar perception of the psychologically important aspects of the work environment'' (Ashforth 1985, p.837).

(2006) mention the importance of 'perceived procedural justice'; this has an effect on people's opinion about their relations with authorities and the willingness to accept decisions. They also explained that the procedure is perceived more positively (more fair) when people have been allowed to express their opinion[4]. Burke et al (2007) listed some relevant features of leaders to increase people's trust. These include the leader's ability, benevolence (genuine care about subordinate), integrity, and reputation. Another external factor determining the respect for authority they mentioned is the organizational environment: "In organizational climates where individuals are respected, are not treated as scapegoats, and are encouraged to discuss errors (…), team leaders will reciprocally receive respect and be perceived as more trustworthy" (2007, p.623).

2.2.1 Job satisfaction affected by respect for authority, and related concepts
Searching for the relation between respect for authority and job satisfaction in the literature, Lau and Sholihin's (2005) study repeat the emphasis on procedural fairness (leading to respect for authority). They concluded that it does not matter if the performance measures used in an organization are financial or nonfinancial. It is the (perception of) the fairness of the evaluation procedures that can lead to job satisfaction.

Furthermore, some other indicators (variables related to respect for authority) for the relationship with job satisfaction can be found. One example is the study of Kim and Brymer (2011), in which they found that the (perception of) ethical leadership[5] has a positive influence on subordinates' job satisfaction. Another possible indicator of respect for authority was studied by Sy et al (2006),

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[4] Another article found that leaders who showed openness to subordinates and higher acceptance to their opinions, positively affected subordinates' job satisfaction (Mihalcea 2013).
[5] Ethical leadership could be an indicator of respect for authority, especially because in Kim and Brymer's (2011) study it was the subordinates answering the questionnaire about ethical leadership, so it was the subordinates' view about their authority's ethical behavior.

the advantage of the manager's emotional intelligence [6]. They found that managers with higher emotional intelligence had the ability to positively influence the job satisfaction of employees who had low emotional intelligence. Even though there is little focus in the literature on the direct relationship between the concept of 'respect for authority' and job satisfaction, this does not mean it should be irrelevant. Spagnoli et al (2012) show the importance of different aspects of job satisfaction in their study. Apart from 'work itself satisfaction' and 'reward satisfaction', they mention 'management practices satisfaction' and 'work climate satisfaction'. These two categories (especially the last one) cover the concept of respect for authority. Spagnoli et al (2012) listed the important features of these categories such as 'the relationship with my direct manager' and 'the management practices of the company', which shows that respect for authority may be an interesting factor for job satisfaction. Another indication of the relationship can be found in Xie et al (2008): Chinese employees having higher levels of traditionality (including respect for authority) showed different levels of job stress than employees with lower levels of traditionality. Based on the indications mentioned above, the first hypothesis for the analysis will be the following.

Hypothesis 1: There is a positive relationship between a person's respect for authority and job satisfaction.

2.3 Cultural influences

Apart from all the general factors mentioned earlier, the level of job satisfaction also depends on different cultures. By analyzing the data of twenty-one countries from the 1997 International Social Survey Program, Sousa-Poza and Sousa-Poza

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[6] Actually it is the manager's emotional intelligence that generates some positive perceptions of the employees which might be related to respect for authority. Managers with higher emotional intelligence are able to help employees with less emotional intelligence to regulate their negative emotions during times of stress and difficulty at work (Sy et al 2006). This may then increase the employees' respect for the manager.

(2000) confirm that job satisfaction varies across countries, which can be partially explained by the differences in work-role inputs and outputs[7] between countries. For example, American workers have a relatively high job satisfaction, mainly due to their relatively high work-role outputs (relatively secure jobs, good advancement opportunities and good pay) compared to the other countries. However, Great Britain and Japan have relatively low job satisfaction, mainly due to their relatively low work-role outputs. Moreover, Huang and Van de Vliert (2003) found that the relationship between intrinsic job characteristics[8] and job satisfaction varies significantly across countries, which to be more specific, varies across different levels of national wealth, national social security, cultural individualism and cultural power distance. Connecting to the study of Clark (1997) mentioned in section 2.1 above, Singhapakdi et al (2013) test the cultural effect on the observed gender disparity in job satisfaction and results confirm the existence of the moderation effect of culture. Gender disparity in job satisfaction seems significant in both Thailand and in the U.S., but in Thailand it has different causes.

Considering the differences between cultures, one of the most influential theories is Hofstede's dimensions of national culture. Originally based on a large database of employee values scores created by IBM, Hofstede developed theoretical dimensions to provide a tool to measure a country's culture (Hofstede et al 2010). Hofstede's cultural dimensions theory currently consists of six dimensions: Power distance (level of acceptance of the social hierarchy in a society), Individualism (preference for a loosely-knit social framework) versus Collectivism (preference for a tightly-knit framework), Masculinity (a more

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[7] Work-role inputs are education, working time, exhausting job, physically demanding and dangerous job. Work-role outputs are high income, job security, advancement opportunities, interesting job, work independently, help people, relationship with management and relationship with colleagues (Souza-Poza & Souza-Poza 2000).

[8] Intrinsic job characteristics (IJC) describe the job content and tasks that relate to self-expression and self-actualization (Huang & Van de Vliert 2003). In Huang and Van de Vliert's paper, IJC was predominantly expressed by two items from International Social Survey Program: 'My job is interesting' and 'I can work independently' (2003, p.164).

competitive society) versus Femininity (a more consensus-oriented society), Uncertainty avoidance (how strongly a society anticipates an unknown future), Long-term versus Short-term orientation (if the focus is on perseverance or quick results respectively) and Indulgence versus Restraint (if the focus is on free fulfillment of any human needs or suppressing and regulating those).

A couple of papers have studied the relationship between job satisfaction and cultures through some of these cultural dimensions. In a low power distance country, more empowerment is most likely to increase job satisfaction because the employees will prefer being more treated as equals and deal with more informal hierarchy (Eylon & Au 1999). However, Eylon & Au (1999) found that for both high and low power distance cultures, workers' job satisfaction is higher with empowerment and lower with disempowerment. Robie et al (1998) state that in a high power distance society, job level has a larger effect on job satisfaction. Besides power distance dimension, individualism is found negatively correlated with job satisfaction (Hui et al 1995; Hui & Lee 1999; Kirkman & Shapiro 2001; Klassen et al 2010). They state that the higher job satisfaction among collectivists compared to individualists is mainly due to the fact that collectivists pursue to maintain interpersonal harmony (Hui et al 1995). On the contrary, Huang and Van de Vliert (2004) found a positive relationship between individualism and job satisfaction across countries and that individualism might have a larger influence on job satisfaction when it interacts with job level. They also point at the possibility that mentally challenging and intrinsically motivating jobs are valued more by workers in rich and culturally individualistic countries than those in poor and collectivistic countries; Kanungo (1990) for example finds that workers at all levels in India (more collectivistic county) are indifferent with challenging jobs.

Because of lack of direct relations between job satisfaction and both Masculinity and Uncertainty Avoidance, only some indirect indicators can be

shown. For example, Phelps and Zoega (2013) concluded that institutions of corporatism negatively affect the job satisfaction. It can be argued that those institutions, including the heavier regulation of credit markets, labor markets and businesses, are associated more with strong uncertainty avoidance. So that would implicate that higher uncertainty avoidance is negatively related with job satisfaction. Phelps and Zoega (2013) also found that capitalist features positively affect job satisfaction. With the focus on individual achievement, independence, and money, capitalism could be associated with high masculinity. So then high masculinity could be more likely increasing job satisfaction.

2.4 Authority in different culture dimensions

Culture may change the effect a certain factor has on job satisfaction. The question is what this would mean in the case of respect for authority. According to Kirkman and Shapiro, their data suggest that ''…employees do resist management initiatives when these clash with their cultural values'' (2001, p.565). The question how culture exactly interacts with respect for authority to affect job satisfaction is not described from the literature. Some articles discuss potential indicators; most of these are related to the Power distance dimension.

The cultural dimension of Power distance has the most obvious connection to respect for authority. According to Clark's (1990) view of the dimensions, it is even specifically Power distance that is concerned with relations to authority[9]. In high power distance countries, respect for authority will be more important for subordinates because they expect the superiors to behave autocratically and to enjoy privileges (Hofstede 1980). Kirkman and Shapiro (1997) emphasize that high power distance subordinates become uncomfortable receiving authority or responsibility delegation. Subordinates in low power distance countries however

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[9] According to Clark (1990), the Individualism versus Collectivism dimension and Masculinity versus Femininity dimension are concerned with relations to 'self', and the Uncertainty Avoidance dimension is concerned with relations to risk.

have weak independence needs towards their superiors, expect to be consulted[10] by their superiors and consider privileges for superiors not acceptable (Hofstede 1980). Furthermore, the importance of having a voice in decision processes (having itself an effect on respect for authority; as mentioned in 2.2) is greater in low power distance countries, because their people in the lower power positions more likely believe they indeed should have a voice (Brockner et al, 2001). Lee et al (2000) confirmed the relatively higher importance of procedural justice for trust in the authority in low power distance countries as well.

Hypothesis 2: There is a positive interaction effect between the Power distance dimension and respect for authority on job satisfaction.

Considering the Individualism versus Collectivism dimension, respect for authority will more likely be found in more collectivist countries. Employees of these countries will have a moral relationship (loyalty) towards the employer. In more individualist countries, the employee-employer relationship is more a business relationship that only holds as long as that relationship is optimally beneficial for both sides (Hofstede 1984). Considering this dimension, the analysis will test the following hypothesis.

Hypothesis 3: There is a negative interaction effect between the Individualism versus Collectivism dimension and respect for authority on job satisfaction.[11]

The connection between the other two cultural dimensions[12] and respect for authority is less clear. For the Uncertainty avoidance dimension, it could be

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[10] In line with these ideas, Eylon and Au (1999) concluded that empowerment would be unsuitable for high power distance countries and suitable for low power distance countries.
[11] Considering this dimension, Individualism is the main focus. So a higher score means more individualistic and a lower score means more collectivist.
[12] In the literature review the fifth and cultural sixth dimensions (Long-term versus Short term orientation and Indulgence versus Restraint) are not covered. This is mainly because they are not included in the analysis either, due to the fact that for many countries, the scores on these dimensions are still unavailable.

inferred that respect for authority is more important in strong uncertainty avoidance countries. In Hofstede's description of this dimension, he mentioned that for strong uncertainty avoidance cultures "Ordinary citizens are incompetent compared with the authorities" (1980, p.47)[13]. Moreover, Laurent (1983) found that organizations are more seen as authority structures by managers from high uncertainty avoidance countries than by those from lower uncertainty avoidance countries. This means that people with more respect for authority will be happier at work in particular in high Uncertainty avoidance countries. These suggestions lead to the following hypothesis concerning Uncertainty avoidance.

Hypothesis 4: There is a positive interaction effect between the Uncertainty avoidance dimension and respect for authority on job satisfaction.

Finally, for the Masculinity versus Femininity dimension it is difficult to suggest which side of the dimension connects better with respect for authority (based on the description Hofstede (1980) provided). Nevertheless, Kerfoot and Knights stress "…some of the tensions that are an effect of masculinity (…) for example, (…) the indignity that stems from the embodied experience of subordination and dependence in a culture that emphasizes male dominance and individual autonomy" (1993, p.674). From this insight, two ways of interpretation are possible. It could be argued that in a culture which emphasizes personal achievement, lower respect for authority is beneficial to make it to the top (which then will lead to more satisfaction). On the contrary, it could also be argued that only individuals with higher respect for authority would have higher job satisfaction in masculine societies.[14] The logic behind this would be that

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[13] For weak uncertainty avoidance countries he wrote: "The authorities are there to serve the citizens" (1980, p.47).

[14] It should be noted that Kerfoot and Knights (1993) do not mention their concept of masculinity is linked to Hofstede's research. However, the similarities between their description of masculinity and Hofstede's

subordinates with higher respect for authority are not so focused on arguing about hierarchy issues, so they would get less frustrated than subordinates with lower respect for authority. Based on the intuition that the majority of the people will remain subordinates throughout their lives, the fifth hypothesis can be suggested.

Hypothesis 5: There is a positive interaction effect between the Masculinity versus Femininity dimension and respect for authority on job satisfaction.[15]

3. Data and Methodology

Following the hypotheses mentioned in the last section, this thesis will test and analyze the effect of an individual's respect for authority on job satisfaction. Most importantly, the interaction (moderate) effect of cultural dimensions on the individual's relationship between respect for authority and job satisfaction will be studied in this thesis as well (Figure 1).

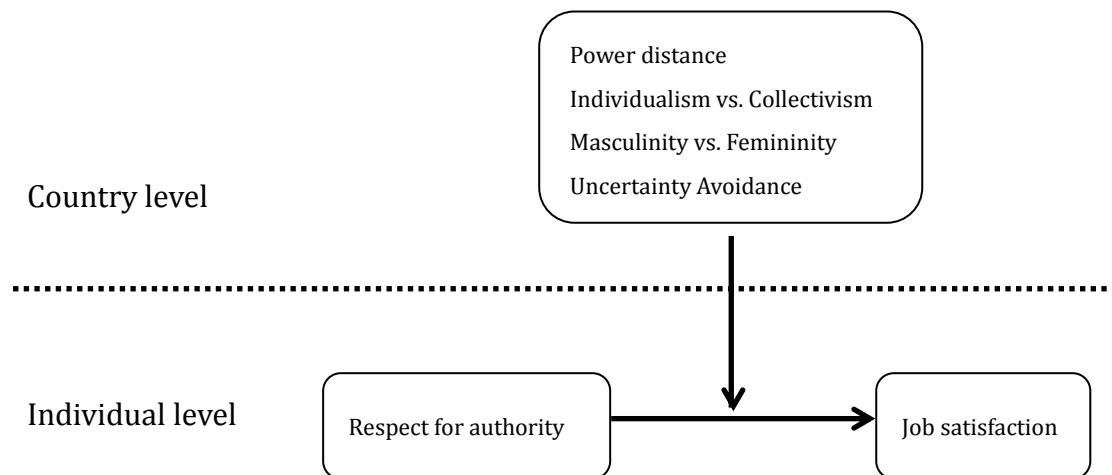Figure 1. Four cultural dimensions moderate the effect of respect for authority on job satisfaction.

The database is mainly coming from the World Values Survey Association

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masculinity help to make a contribution to the expectations for this cultural dimension.

[15] Considering this dimension, Masculinity is the main focus. So a higher score means more masculine and a lower score means more feminine.

(2009). This is an organization with a network of social scientists, having the goal of surveying basic values and beliefs of people from different societies[16] (World Values Survey, 2013). They conduct surveys in different time waves to have an overview of value developments for each country. For this thesis, the 2005 wave database is used, which consists of 57 countries with a total of 82992 respondents. The surveys for this wave were conducted from 2005 to 2008. The survey was also split in two questionnaires: the majority of the countries had the complete questionnaire and the others a reduced version. This is not a problem for the main analysis, because in both cases the important questions relating to the variables for this study were asked. The data consists of questionnaire answers on the individual (respondent) level. From the combined database, only respondents that actually answered the crucial questions for this thesis were kept for the test[17].

The second part of the database is coming from the research of Hofstede et al (2010). The scores for the cultural dimensions Power distance, Individualism versus Collectivism, Masculinity versus Femininity, and Uncertainty avoidance are country based[18]. As mentioned earlier, the fifth and sixth dimensions are not included due to lack of data. These scores are relative and can only be used in comparison (Hofstede et al, 2010). Obviously, adding these data made another cut in the database to remove respondents from countries that were not included in Hofstede's cultural dimensions research.

After having combined two databases – WVS and Hofstede's dimensions, the final data for analysis consists of 45 countries[19] with 31638 respondents.

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[16] The word 'societies' is actually more accurate than 'countries': even though most of the respondents are listed as member of their country, this is not the case for residents of Hong Kong (special economic zone of China) and Taiwan (unofficial state, claimed by China). Nevertheless, for the rest of this thesis the word 'country' will be used as synonym of 'society'.

[17] The respondents who had negative response codes (-1,-2,-3 et cetera for 'don't know', 'no answer', 'not applicable') for those questions were removed from the database.

[18] Hofstede's cultural dimension score consists of 93 countries. 13 of these were grouped together in three larger regions, so those where not usable for the database.

[19] These 45 countries are Argentina, Australia, Brazil, Bulgaria, Canada, Chili, China, Colombia, Egypt, Ethiopia, Finland, France, Germany, Ghana, Guatemala, Hong Kong, India, Indonesia, Iran, Iraq, Italy, Japan, Malaysia, Mexico, Morocco, Netherlands, Norway, Peru, Poland, Romania, Russia, Serbia, Slovenia, South

Job satisfaction

Unfortunately, the WVS does not have a direct question about people's 'job satisfaction', the dependent variable. In order to do the analysis, two questions from the WVS had to be combined to be able to create the closest indication. The first question is *'For each of the following, indicate how important it is in your life. Would you say it is very important, rather important, not very important, or not at all important? (V8. Work)'* The answer codes were 1, 2, 3, and 4 respectively. The second question is *'(V22.) All things considered, how satisfied are you with your life as a whole these days? Using this card on which 1 means you are "completely dissatisfied" and 10 means you are "completely satisfied" where would you put your satisfaction with your life as a whole?'* So the two questions about importance of work in life and life satisfaction are combined. From the first question, only the people who answered code 1 (*'very important'*) and 2 (*'rather important'*)[20] are taken into consideration[21]. Then the life satisfaction scale from 1 to 10 is the closest indicator of job satisfaction, the person's satisfaction concerning work life. To make this variable valid, another cut was made in the database: respondents who were not employed were removed from the database[22].

Additionally, another test will be run without the restriction of only selecting respondents who indicated that they considered work *'very important'* or *'rather important'* (*'important'*, in Colombia's case) in their lives. Extending the analysis[23] to include those who answered the codes '3' and '4' obviously costs some validity of life satisfaction as an indicator of job satisfaction. However, the advantage is

Africa, South Korea, Spain, Sweden, Taiwan, Trinidad and Tobago (this country is included although Hofstede only provided cultural dimensions scores for Trinidad), Turkey, United Kingdom, Uruguay, United States, Vietnam, Zambia. From the WVS countries that were excluded, nine (Andorra, Burkina Faso, Cyprus, Georgia, Jordan, Mali, Moldova, Rwanda, and Ukraine) were excluded because there were no cultural dimension scores available for them. The three remaining countries (New Zealand, Switzerland, and Thailand) were excluded because they missed positive answer codes for one of the crucial questions in the WVS database.

[20] In Colombia, a different scale was used: 1 *'very important'*, 2 *'important'*, and 3 *'not at all important'*. Because answer code 2 is also a positive response, these first two codes are considered to be the same as in the other countries for the variable in the analysis.

[21] About the respondents who do not consider work important in life it cannot be said that their life satisfaction is a close indicator of their job satisfaction.

[22] These are the respondents who did not answer *'full time employee (30 hours a week or more)'*, *'part time employee (less than 30 hours a week)'*, or *'self employed'* to question *'V241: Are you employed or not? (...)'*.

[23] The extended analysis data consists of the same 45 countries, but with 32870 respondents in total.

that it reduces a big potential bias in the results: the bias that the results are only based on the people that consider work important (which left 1232 respondents out of the original database). It cannot be estimated to what extent the validity is lost. Again, it may be stressed here that there is a lot of literature mentioned, in section 2.1.1, supporting the idea that life satisfaction and job satisfaction are strongly related. The advantage is that the test will indicate the amount of bias the main analysis contained; it is interesting to see whether the original results still hold using the alternative measure of job satisfaction.

Respect for Authority

The data for the independent variable 'respect for authority' is also from the WVS. The question in the survey is *'I'm going to read out a list of various changes in our way of life that might take place in the near future. Please tell me for each one, if it were to happen, whether you think it would be a good thing, a bad thing, or don't you mind? (V78. Greater respect for authority)'*. The answer codes are 1 *'good'*, 2 *'don't mind'*, and 3 *'bad'*. These answers indicate the person's attitude concerning respect for authority, interpreted as high, mediate, and low respect for authority respectively.

Power distance (PDI)

The data for the variables of the cultural dimensions, based on Hofstede et al (2010), are used to compare countries on a scale. Hofstede et al (2010) calculated the scores for the dimensions based on questions answered by comparable IBM employees in all listed countries. They used the mean scores for the most strongly related questions to calculate the cultural dimension indexes.[24] The exact scores from the indexes are used for this analysis.

In the case of Power distance, a relatively high score shows a high "...extent to

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[24] Originally, the scales reached from 0 to 100, so 0 and 100 were the extreme scores on the cultural dimensions. The countries which have scores above 100 were added later.

which a society accepts the fact that power in institutions and organizations is distributed unequally'' (Hofstede 1980, p.45). Examples he mentioned are the inaccessibility of superiors, most people should be dependent and only few people should be independent, and power-holders are entitled to privileges. Relatively low scores show a lower extent of expectation and acceptance of these characteristics.

Individualism versus Collectivism (IDV)

The 'Individualism versus Collectivism' variable is making a distinction between individualism, which "...implies a loosely knit social framework in which people are supposed to take care of themselves and of their immediate families only..." and collectivism, which "...is characterized by a tight social framework in which people distinguish between in-groups and out-groups; they expect their in-group (relatives, clan, organizations) to look after them, and in exchange for that they feel they owe absolute loyalty to it'' (Hofstede 1980, p.45). A relatively high score shows a more individualist society, a relatively low score shows a more collectivist society.

Masculinity versus Femininity (MAS)

For the variable 'Masculinity versus Femininity', a country's high score means a more masculine society, a high "...extent to which the dominant values in society are "masculine''- that is, assertiveness, the acquisition of money and things, and *not* caring for others, the quality of life, or people'' (Hofstede 1980, p.46). A low score means a more feminine society, where for example "...men needn't be assertive, but can also assume nurturing roles (...) quality of life is important (...) people and environment are important...one sympathizes with the unfortunate..." (Hofstede 1980, p.49).

Uncertainty avoidance (UAI)

Finally, the 'Uncertainty avoidance' variable shows the strength of preference for countries to avoid future uncertainties. A relatively high score means that there is a higher "...extent to which a society feels threatened by uncertain and ambiguous situations and tries to avoid these situations by providing greater career stability, establishing more formal rules, not tolerating deviant ideas and behaviors, and believing in absolute truths and the attainment of expertise'' (Hofstede, 1980, p.45). A relatively low score shows the opposite.

Gender

Gender is the first control variable used in the analysis. Gender information of the respondents is coming from the V235 entry (1 *'male'*, 2 *'female'*) of the WVS.

Age

The second control variable is age (question V237 of the WVS). For the survey, respondents' age ranges from 15 to 98. After the necessary cuts made in the database (mentioned above), the age range decreased to 15 to 90 for the main analysis. The respondents' ages are not categorized into groups, for this test the real ages are used.

Education

The final control variable is education level. This is question V238 of the WVS: *'What is the highest education level that you have attained?'*[25] The answer options were on a scale from 1 to 9: *'no formal education'*, *'incomplete primary school'*, *'complete primary school'*, *'incomplete secondary school: technical/vocational type'*, *'complete secondary school: technical/vocational type'*, *'incomplete secondary: university-preparatory type'*, *'complete secondary: university-preparatory type'*,

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[25] In case of students, the level they expected to complete was coded.

'some university-level education, without degree', and *'university-level education, with degree'* respectively. Because the education levels are from lower to higher in the right order, the codes are used as a scale score from 1 to 9 for the analysis.

Table 1 and Table 2 present the summary statistics of test variables and country data respectively.

Table 1: Variable summary

	Job satisfaction	High RFA	Low RFA	PDI	IDV	MAS	UAI	Male	Age	Education	Public sector
Mean	6.977	0.615	0.134	64.033	39.663	49.670	66.524	0.603	38.883	5.767	0.278
Std. Dev.	2.194	0.487	0.341	18.647	23.969	16.593	20.854	0.489	12.061	2.396	0.448

Variable High RFA, Low RFA, Male and Public sector are dummy variables.

Table 2: Country data summary

Country code	Country	Number of respondents			Average	Greater respect for authority			Cultural dimensions			
		Total	Public sector	Private sector	job satisfaction	Good	Don't mind	Bad	PDI	IDV	MAS	UAI
1	France	482	131	330	7.124	85.9%	10.8%	3.3%	68	71	43	86
2	United Kingdom	468	111	327	7.509	76.5%	17.9%	5.6%	35	89	66	35
4	Italy	499	111	282	7.020	46.5%	44.9%	8.6%	50	76	70	75
5	Netherlands	457	110	287	7.836	71.6%	21.7%	6.8%	38	80	14	53
8	Spain	537	86	366	7.601	77.5%	16.2%	6.3%	57	51	42	86
11	USA	610	113	400	7.292	60.0%	32.8%	7.2%	40	91	62	46
12	Canada	1048	282	724	7.790	65.1%	26.7%	8.2%	39	80	52	48
13	Japan	619	85	474	6.872	3.1%	14.2%	82.7%	54	46	95	92
14	Mexico	794	174	466	8.194	86.8%	10.6%	2.6%	81	30	69	82
15	South Africa	1242	234	877	7.497	80.4%	18.3%	1.4%	49	65	63	49
17	Australia	778	189	537	7.351	53.7%	39.5%	6.8%	36	90	61	51
18	Norway	699	258	437	8.082	30.2%	27.8%	42.1%	31	69	8	50
19	Sweden	622	251	358	7.767	20.6%	17.5%	61.9%	31	71	5	29
22	Argentina	538	99	271	7.651	76.2%	20.6%	3.2%	49	46	56	86

23	Finland	474	188	265	8.095	42.8%	27.4%	29.7%	33	63	26	59
24	South Korea	555	160	336	6.521	24.5%	30.6%	44.9%	60	18	39	85
25	Poland	390	154	233	7.305	42.1%	49.5%	8.5%	68	60	64	93
28	Brazil	764	145	370	7.743	76.3%	20.3%	3.4%	69	38	49	76
30	Chili	452	56	346	7.347	66.4%	30.5%	3.1%	63	23	28	86
32	India	832	133	315	5.936	38.7%	49.4%	11.9%	77	48	56	40
35	Slovenia	447	146	280	7.564	31.8%	48.3%	19.9%	71	27	19	88
36	Bulgaria	346	94	247	5.772	43.1%	49.1%	7.8%	70	30	40	85
37	Romania	603	200	388	6.584	75.0%	23.2%	1.8%	90	30	42	90
39	China	886	137	186	6.995	62.9%	25.5%	11.6%	80	20	66	30
40	Taiwan	803	113	681	6.738	25.3%	28.3%	46.5%	58	17	45	69
44	Turkey	483	82	368	7.613	51.6%	38.7%	9.7%	66	37	45	85
50	Russia	994	382	523	6.224	45.0%	49.2%	5.8%	93	39	36	95
51	Peru	840	119	234	7.067	86.1%	10.8%	3.1%	64	16	42	87
54	Uruguay	425	63	260	7.647	65.9%	25.6%	8.5%	61	36	38	100
56	Ghana	876	107	725	6.131	92.5%	7.1%	0.5%	80	15	40	65
70	Indonesia	1012	231	516	6.906	16.4%	22.1%	61.5%	78	14	46	48
71	Vietnam	562	184	105	7.368	86.1%	13.0%	0.9%	70	20	40	30
73	Colombia	1835	248	1547	8.345	91.9%	6.6%	1.5%	67	13	64	80
81	Serbia	521	214	284	6.347	57.6%	26.5%	15.9%	86	25	43	92
89	Egypt	1038	442	575	5.699	77.2%	21.4%	1.4%	70	25	45	80
90	Morocco	917	97	803	5.296	70.4%	25.5%	4.0%	70	25	53	68
91	Iran	1011	301	637	6.407	66.2%	24.7%	9.1%	58	41	43	59
97	Iraq	940	NA	NA	4.497	90.5%	8.0%	1.5%	95	30	70	85
98	Guatemala	612	NA	NA	8.077	90.2%	6.4%	3.4%	95	6	37	101
104	Hong Kong	568	NA	NA	6.387	24.6%	58.1%	17.3%	68	25	57	29

105	Trinidad & Tobago	513	151	355	7.271	88.7%	8.6%	2.7%	47	16	58	55
109	Malaysia	689	130	498	6.904	54.3%	45.2%	0.5%	104	26	50	36
111	Ethiopia	664	197	430	4.813	50.0%	37.7%	12.3%	70	20	65	55
114	Zambia	421	168	220	6.257	60.1%	30.9%	9.0%	60	35	40	50
276	Germany	772	164	408	7.321	49.4%	32.5%	18.1%	35	67	66	65

Country code is based on WVS's original survey code for countries.

Total number of observations for main analysis: 31638

Total number of observations in public and private sector for extension analysis: 7040 and 18271 respectively.

NA represents Not Asked.

In order to test the hypothesis 1-5 that are mentioned above, three main models are formed.

Basic model:

1    $Job\ Satisfaction_i = \alpha_i + \beta_1 respect\ for\ authority_i + \varepsilon_i$

2    $Job\ Satisfaction_{i,c}$
$$= \alpha_i + \beta_1 respect\ for\ authority_i$$
$$+ \beta_2 cultural\ dimension_c + \beta_3 respect\ for\ authority_i$$
$$* cultural\ dimension_c + \varepsilon_i$$

Controlled model:

3    $Job\ satisfaction_{i,c}$
$$= \alpha_i + \beta_1 respect\ for\ authority_i$$
$$+ \beta_2 cultural\ dimension_c + \beta_3 respect\ for\ authority_i$$
$$* cultural\ dimension_c + \beta_4 gender_i + \beta_5 age_i + \beta_6 age_i^2$$
$$+ \beta_7 education_i + \varepsilon_i$$

Model 1 is designed to test Hypothesis 1 by estimating whether β_1 is positive. Estimating β_3 of model 2 in different cultural dimension tests serves to assess Hypotheses 2-5.

4. Results

Considering the data contains a large amount of individuals from different countries and the analysis is highly related with cross-country cultural dimensions, two Panel Least Squares estimation tests are used in the beginning to help determine and select a relatively more accurate and robust test for analysis.   In the first test, data is not clustered and coefficient covariance

method is selected as Ordinary (Table 3). In the second one, data is clustered based on country codes, and coefficient covariance method is set as White Period, which makes that standard errors are robust to arbitrary within cross-section residual correlation (Table 4). Comparing the estimation results from these two tests, variables' estimated coefficients in the clustered test show considerably larger standard errors. This indicates that by using data without clustering, interpretations of estimation results might be distorted. Therefore, in the remainder of this thesis, in all analyses standard errors are corrected from clustering at the country level.

Table 3: Unclustered sample estimation results

Variable	Estimated coefficient						
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
C	-0.252**	-0.252**	-0.311**	-0.260**	-0.255**	-0.286**	0.309
	(0.025)	(0.024)	(0.025)	(0.025)	(0.025)	(0.024)	(0.119)
High_RFA	0.348**	0.379**	0.418**	0.361**	0.352**	0.403**	0.442**
	(0.029)	(0.029)	(0.029)	(0.029)	(0.029)	(0.029)	(0.029)
Low_RFA	0.280**	0.146**	0.325**	0.248**	0.247**	0.199**	0.106*
	(0.042)	(0.042)	(0.041)	(0.042)	(0.042)	(0.045)	(0.045)
PDI		-0.025**				-0.017**	-0.017**
		(0.001)				(0.002)	(0.002)
High_RFA*PDI		0.003*				-0.014**	-0.014**
		(0.001)				(0.002)	(0.002)
Low_RFA*PDI		0.004				0.004	0.007*
		(0.002)				(0.004)	(0.004)
IDV			0.018**			0.010**	0.008**
			(0.001)			(0.001)	(0.002)
High_RFA*IDV			-0.011**			-0.016**	-0.016**
			(0.001)			(0.002)	(0.002)
Low_RFA*IDV			-0.004*			-0.006*	-0.003
			(0.002)			(0.003)	(0.003)
MAS				-0.010**		-0.010**	-0.009**
				(0.002)		(0.002)	(0.002)
High_RFA*MAS				0.005**		0.009**	0.008**
				(0.002)		(0.002)	(0.002)
Low_RFA*MAS				-0.003		0.001	-0.0002
				(0.002)		(0.002)	(0.002)
UAI					-0.002	0.003*	0.002
					(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)

Variable	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
High_RFA*UAI					0.001	0.005**	0.005**
					(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)
Low_RFA*UAI					-0.007**	-0.003	-0.002
					(0.002)	(0.002)	(0.002)
Male_Dummy							-0.118**
							(0.025)
Age							-0.030**
							(0.006)
Age Squard							0.000**
							(0.000)
Education							0.115**
							(0.005)
R^2	0.005	0.041	0.021	0.009	0.006	0.050	0.065

Number of observations: 31638

**, * denotes statistically significant differences at the 1%, 5% level respectively.

Dependent variable Job satisfaction, independent variable PDI, IDV, MAS, UAI and Education are mean-centered.

Variable High RFA, Low RFA and Male are dummy variables.

Table 4: Clustered sample estimation results

Variable	Estimated coefficient						
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
C	-0.252	-0.252*	-0.311*	-0.260	-0.255	-0.286*	0.309
	(0.153)	(0.127)	(0.141)	(0.154)	(0.153)	(0.134)	(0.273)
High_RFA	0.348*	0.379**	0.418**	0.361*	0.352*	0.403**	0.442**
	(0.152)	(0.131)	(0.145)	(0.142)	(0.140)	(0.097)	(0.095)
Low_RFA	0.280*	0.146	0.325**	0.248	0.247*	0.199	0.106
	(0.280)	(0.124)	(0.119)	(0.130)	(0.112)	(0.108)	(0.094)
PDI		-0.025**				-0.017	-0.017
		(0.006)				(0.010)	(0.010)
High_RFA*PDI		0.003				-0.014	-0.014
		(0.008)				(0.012)	(0.011)
Low_RFA*PDI		0.004				0.004	0.007
		(0.006)				(0.008)	(0.007)
IDV			0.018**			0.01	0.008
			(0.004)			(0.007)	(0.007)
High_RFA*IDV			-0.011*			-0.016*	-0.016*
			(0.005)			(0.008)	(0.006)
Low_RFA*IDV			-0.004			-0.006	-0.003
			(0.004)			(0.006)	(0.006)

|	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
MAS				-0.010		-0.01	-0.009
				(0.009)		(0.006)	(0.006)
High_RFA*MAS				0.005		0.009	0.008
				(0.012)		(0.009)	(0.009)
Low_RFA*MAS				-0.003		0.001	0.000
				(0.007)		(0.005)	(0.005)
UAI					-0.002	0.003	0.002
					(0.006)	(0.005)	(0.005)
High_RFA*UAI					0.001	0.005	0.005
					(0.006)	(0.005)	(0.005)
Low_RFA*UAI					-0.007	-0.003	-0.002
					(0.005)	(0.005)	(0.005)
Male_Dummy							-0.118
							(0.074)
Age							-0.030**
							(0.010)
Age Squard							0.000**
							(0.000)
Education							0.115**
							(0.026)
R^2	0.005	0.041	0.021	0.009	0.006	0.049	0.065

Number of observations: 31638

**, * denotes statistically significant differences at the 1%, 5% level respectively.

Dependent variable Job satisfaction, independent variable PDI, IDV, MAS, UAI and Education are mean-centered.

Variable High RFA, Low RFA and Male are dummy variables.

Figure 2. The estimated job satisfaction of individuals with different RFA in four cultural dimensions

(a)

(b)

(c)

(d)

○ High_RFA △ Med_RFA + Low_RFA
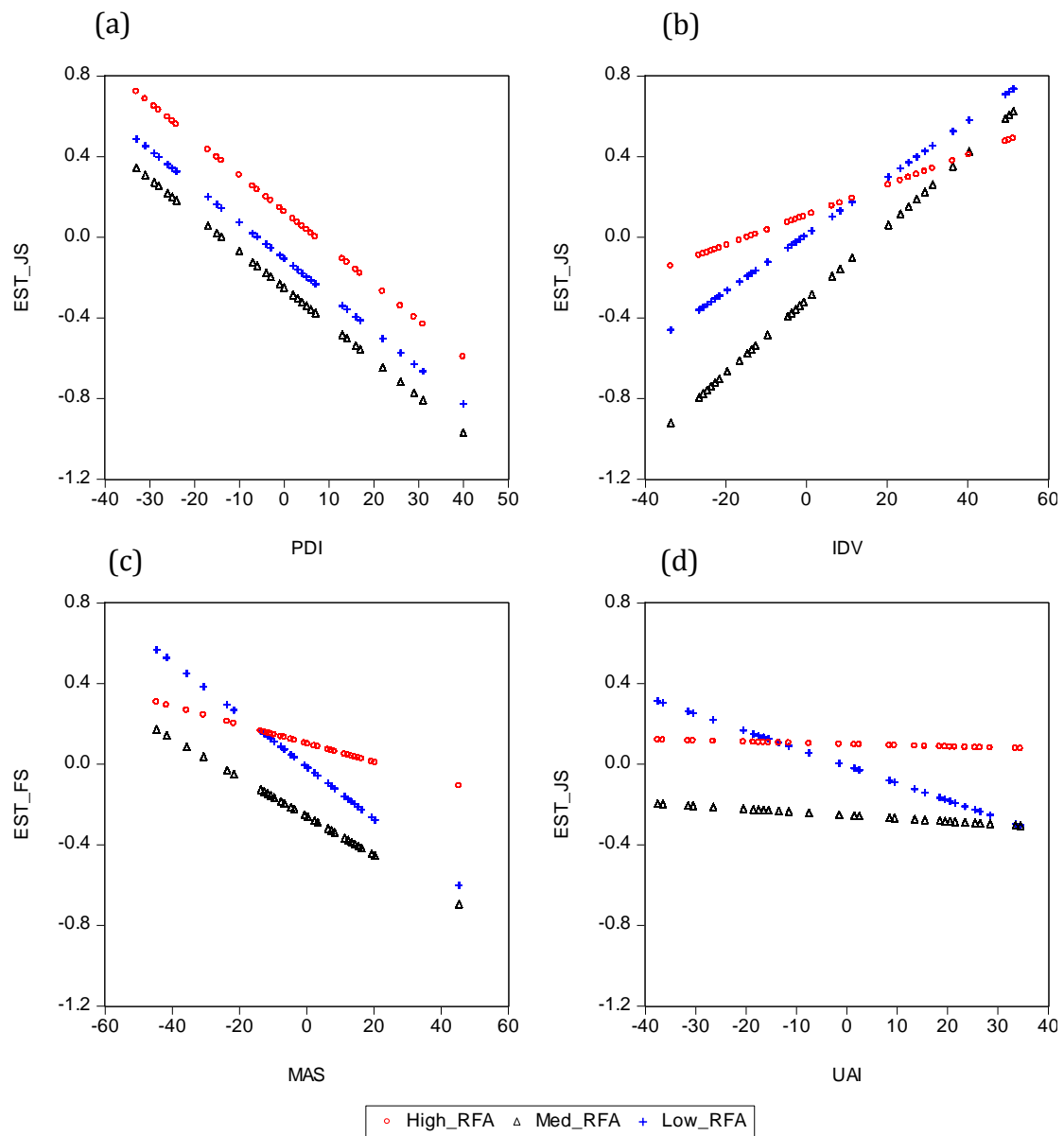
Respect for authority (RFA)

The test results (Table 4, column 1) show that individuals with both high and low respect for authority (RFA) have significantly higher job satisfaction than individuals with mediate RFA. High RFA holds a larger effect on an individual's job satisfaction than low RFA does, although the difference is not statistically significant (Wald test, F statistics P-value 0.733). These results support Hypothesis 1 only partially; considering the difference between individuals

having mediate RFA and those having high RFA, the positive relationship with job satisfaction exists. However, considering the difference between individuals having low RFA and those having mediate RFA there is a negative relationship with job satisfaction, the results are contradicting Hypothesis 1.

Power Distance (PDI)

Following from the test results of column 2 there is a negative correlation between Power distance (PDI) and job satisfaction at all three levels of RFA. The negative effects of PDI on job satisfaction at all RFA levels are statistically significant (Wald test, F statistics p-value 0.018, 0.001 for high and low RFA level respectively). According to the magnitude of these negative effects of UAI, it is the largest at mediate RFA level, and smallest at low RFA level. Based on these results, Hypothesis 2 is only partially confirmed. The effect of PDI on job satisfaction is less negative for people with high RFA than for people with mediate RFA. The fact that those individuals generate relatively higher job satisfaction supports Hypothesis 2. However, the effect of PDI on job satisfaction is more negative for people with mediate RFA than for people with low RFA. Therefore, it contradicts Hypothesis 2. Nevertheless, both interaction effects of high and low RFA with PDI are small and not statistically significant.

Figure 2(a) illustrates the negative correlation between a country's PDI and an individual's job satisfaction for all three levels of RFA. The marginal effects of PDI are displayed by the slopes of three scattered lines in the figure. The slope of mediate RFA is steepest; the slope of low RFA is the least steep. To be more specific, by increasing one standard deviation (18.647) of PDI, the job satisfaction of individuals with high, mediate or low RFA will decrease by 0.410, 0.466 and 0.392 respectively. Another level effect difference Wald test is used to examine the significance of the effect difference between the different RFA levels at a given average PDI value. Wald test results show that there is a statistically significant difference on job satisfaction between high and mediate RFA level when the mean-centered PDI value is greater than approximately -12; and

between mediate and low RFA level when the mean-centered PDI value is greater than approximately 0.

Individualism versus Collectivism (IDV)

The test regarding RFA and Individualism versus Collectivism (IDV) (column 3) shows a positive correlation between IDV and job satisfaction for all three levels of RFA. The positive effect of IDV at mediate RFA level is significant and larger than both high and low RFA level. The positive effect of IDV at low RFA level is significant (Wald test, F statistics with p-value 0.003) and larger than high RFA level. However, the positive effect of IDV at high RFA level is statistically not significant (Wald test, F statistics with p-value 0.271). Hypothesis 3 is again only partially supported by this. The effect of IDV is more positive for people with mediate RFA than for people with high RFA. However, for people with mediate RFA, the effect of IDV is also more positive than for people with low IDV. The latter difference contradicts Hypothesis 3.

This effect is also illustrated in Figure 2(b). The slope (marginal effects of IDV on job satisfaction) of the mediate RFA line is the steepest, and the slope of the high RFA line is the least steep. When IDV increases by one standard deviation (23.969), the job satisfaction of individuals with high, mediate or low RFA will increase by 0.168, 0.431 and 0.336 respectively. It is also shown in the figure that the intersection point of high and low RFA is at the mean-centered IDV value 38, and the intersection point of high and mediate RFA is at 13.286. The results of the Wald test for level effect difference show that there is no statistically significant difference between job satisfaction of high and low RFA level within the given range of average IDV value. However, there is a statistically significant difference in job satisfaction between mediate and low RFA level when the mean-centered IDV value is smaller than approximately 12.

Masculinity versus Femininity (MAS)

According to the results shown in column 4, there is a negative correlation

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between MAS and job satisfaction for all three RFA levels. The negative effect of MAS on job satisfaction at low RFA level is statistically significant (Wald test, F statistics with p-value 0.017) and larger than both high and mediate RFA level. The negative effect of MAS on job satisfaction at mediate RFA level is larger than high RFA level, yet not statistically significant. MAS at high RFA level barely has any effect on job satisfaction. Therefore, Hypothesis 5 is confirmed by these results. The effect of MAS on job satisfaction increases in RFA.

As the scatters show in Figure 2(c), with MAS increasing there is a decrease in job satisfaction for individuals with all three levels of RFA. The negative marginal effect of MAS on job satisfaction for individuals with low RFA is the largest, for individuals with high RFA it is the smallest. For instance, when MAS increases by one standard deviation (16.593), the job satisfaction of individuals with high, mediate, and low RFA will decrease by 0.083, 0.166 and 0.216 respectively. The intersection point between high and low RFA in the figure is at the mean-centered MAS value -14.125. Wald test results confirm that the MAS effect difference on job satisfaction between high and mediate RFA level is significant when the mean-centered MAS value is larger than approximately -12; the difference between mediate and low RFA level is statistically significant when the mean-centered value of MAS is less than approximately 0.

Uncertainty avoidance (UAI)

Similar with the previous combined RFA and MAS tests, dimension Uncertainty avoidance (UAI) is negatively correlated with job satisfaction for all levels of RFA (see column 5). The negative effect of UAI on job satisfaction at low RFA level is largest and the smallest at high RFA level. However, none of those negative effects are statistically significant (Wald test, F statistics p-value is greater than 0.5). Due to the lack of statistical significance, Hypothesis 4 is only weakly supported by the actual magnitude of interaction effect between each RFA level and UAI. The negative effect of UAI on job satisfaction is decreasing with increasing RFA level, but the differences are not statistically significant.

Figure 5(d) gives a more clear vision of the mentioned results. UAI has a negative effect on job satisfaction for all three levels of RFA. Judging from the slope of each line in the figure, the marginal effect of UAI on job satisfaction is largest for individuals with low RFA and smallest for individuals with high RFA. For instance, when UAI increases by one standard deviation (20.854), the job satisfaction of high, mediate and low RFA individuals will decrease by 0.021, 0.042 and 0.188 respectively. The intersection point of high and low RFA is at the mean-centered UAI value -13.125, the one of mediate and low is at 35.286. Although the effects of UAI on job satisfaction at three RFA levels are not statistically significant, the differences between the effects of UAI at two different RFA levels still show some significance. Wald test results show that the UAI effect on job satisfaction difference between high and mediate RFA level is statistically significant when the mean-centered UAI value is greater than approximately -24; the UAI effect on job satisfaction difference between mediate and low RFA level is significant when the mean-centered UAI value is smaller than approximately 3.

Control variables

Looking at the control variables that have been used for the test, a few short points can be mentioned. The male dummy variable has a negative correlation with job satisfaction, although not significant. The marginal effect of age is illustrated in Figure 3. From age fifteen to around forty, an increase in age generates a negative effect on job satisfaction. However, for people over forty, an increase in age generates a positive effect on job satisfaction. Finally, the education level of an individual is positively and significantly correlated with job satisfaction.

Figure 3. Marginal effect of age on job satisfaction
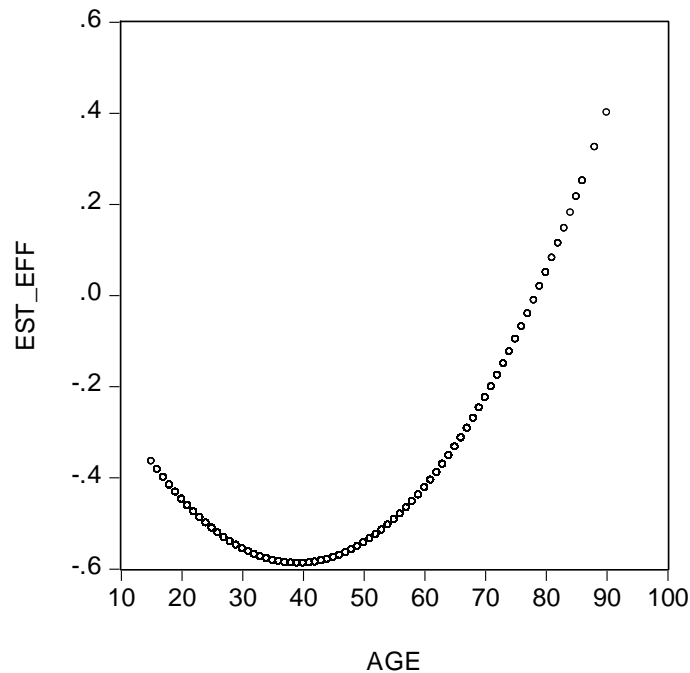
Additionally, as mentioned in the previous section, another (more extensive) database has also been tested including the respondents that answered work is less important in their lives. The results of this test are included in the Appendix-table 6. Compared to the test results (Table 4) obtained from the original database, there is no considerable difference between the estimated coefficients of all variables from the two tests, regarding to magnitude, sign and significance. The amount of observations only increases by 1232 in the extensive list (including all working respondents) compared to the previous list (including working respondents who consider work is important in their lives).

5. Extension - Private and Public sector differences

After learning from the main test results, it will be interesting to look at the differences between people who work in the private sector and people who work in the public sector. Because the means and goals in these two sectors are different, the effect of respect for authority on job satisfaction may be different. Also, the influence of different cultures may change this effect in a different way.

People working in the public sector may have different beliefs about

respect for authority. For example, Mathur et al (1996) studied the difference between public and private sector in India, and they found differences in the emphasis on autonomy, decision-making participation, and empowerment. These were more emphasized in the private sector than the public sector. Existing differences may be due to the public sector specific features. Boyne (2002) mentions the lower managerial autonomy of the public sector, restricted by rules and red tape: ''Managers in public organizations have less freedom to react as they see fit to the circumstances that they face'' (2002, p.101). This is also one of the conclusions of Rainey et al (1976). They emphasize some other important differences for the authority relations in the public sector. On the one hand, they mention some stronger role aspects of authority that public sector workers have to deal with. Because of the public field they work in, they need the support of constituencies, interests, and other authority institutions to do their job. Also, they are ''...more subject to outside monitoring'' (1976, p.139). Not only formal representatives but also the public may watch and judge their actions. On the other hand, Rainey et al mention the weaker role aspects of authority in the public sector. For example, subordinates have the opportunity to bypass their own superiors and refer to alternative formal authorities (government institutions). Another aspect is the fact that in the public sector, it is more difficult to ''...specify clear objectives and performance measures (...) supervise and control subordinates, and results in reluctance to delegate, in multiple levels of review and approval, and in proliferation of regulations'' (1976, p.240).

Although it is clear that in the public sector authority relations have different aspects than the private sector, it is difficult to predict which direction the difference in effect of respect for authority on job satisfaction is. Nevertheless, the balance of the public sector features seems more leaned towards stricter hierarchy characteristics that the subordinates face. This could mean that people with high respect for authority will get less frustrated in the public sector than people with low respect for authority. Therefore, the hypothesis tested in this extension is:

Hypothesis 6: An individual's respect for authority has a stronger positive effect on job satisfaction in the public sector than in the private sector.

To be able to test the hypothesis for public and private sector, the database was split. The split into public and private sector databases was possible based on Question V243 of the WVS: '*Are you working for the government or public institution, for private business or industry, or for a private non-profit organization? If you do not work currently, characterize your major work in the past! Do you or did you work for:*'. The answers were coded 1 '*government or public institution*', 2 '*private business or industry*', and 3 '*private non-profit organization*'. Obviously, respondents who answered '1' were put in the public sector database and respondents who answered '2' were put in the private sector database. Respondents who answered '3' were not included in any of the two databases, because the purpose is to test the clear distinction between public and private sector work[26]. The resulting database consists of 42 countries and 25311 respondents[27].

The average job satisfaction for public and private sector is 7.184 and 7.001 respectively.

Test model:

$$
\begin{aligned}
4 \quad Job\ satisfaction_i \\
= \alpha_i + \beta_1 respect\ for\ authority_i + \beta_2 sector_i \\
+ \beta_3 respect\ for\ authority_i * sector_i + \beta_4 gender_i + \beta_5 age_i \\
+ \beta_6 age_i^2 + \beta_7 education_i + \varepsilon_i
\end{aligned}
$$

This hypothesis will be tested by estimating if coefficient β_3 is positive.

Additionally, some of the characteristics of public sector work mentioned

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[26] Furthermore, like with the main analysis of this thesis, respondents with negative response codes were removed. Also the cut of respondents who were not employed was already made before, so all the respondents in these two databases are working people.

[27] Compared to the database of the main analysis, Iraq, Guatemala, and Hong Kong were removed because question V243 was not asked in these countries.

above may be more in line with some of the cultural dimension sides than private sector work. For example, possible reluctance to delegate authority and the restrictions of rules could be seen as a high power distance feature. Another example is that as a whole, the nature of public sector work fits more in a femininity culture. It may be interesting to see how culture interacts with the sector differences in relation to the effect of respect for authority on job satisfaction. Therefore, another model is created to test these suggestions.

Test model:

$$5 \quad Job\ satisfaction_{i,c}$$
$$= \alpha_i + \beta_1 respect\ for\ authority_i$$
$$+ \beta_2 sector_i + \beta_3 respect\ for\ authority_i * sector_i$$
$$+ \beta_4 cultural\ dimension_c + \beta_5 respect\ for\ authority_i$$
$$* cultural\ dimension_c + \beta_6 sector_i * cultural\ dimension_c$$
$$+ \beta_7 respect\ for\ authority_i * sector_i * cultural\ dimension_c$$
$$+ \beta_8 gender_i + \beta_9 age_i + \beta_{10} age_i^2 + \beta_{11} education_i + \varepsilon_i$$

Table 5: Coefficient estimation results

Variable	Estimated coefficent					
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
C	0.125	0.174	0.141	0.110	0.107	0.118
	(0.307)	(0.310)	(0.290)	(0.298)	(0.304)	(0.276)
High_RFA	0.452**	0.454**	0.521**	0.452**	0.446**	0.471**
	(0.149)	(0.157)	(0.150)	(0.126)	(0.136)	(0.082)
Low_RFA	0.024	-0.076	0.101	0.019	0.016	0.073
	(0.122)	(0.121)	(0.120)	(0.118)	(0.103)	(0.112)
Pubsec_Dummy	-0.062	-0.011	-0.077	-0.051	-0.049	-0.007
	(0.114)	(0.083)	(0.113)	(0.106)	(0.092)	(0.094)
High_RFA*Pubsec_Dummy	-0.006	-0.016	0.026	0.006	-0.010	0.036
	(0.116)	(0.107)	(0.114)	(0.091)	(0.096)	(0.075)
Low_RFA*Pubsec_Dummy	0.380*	0.340*	0.381**	0.266	0.272*	0.183
	(0.148)	(0.144)	(0.140)	(0.149)	(0.128)	(0.140)

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
PDI	-0.020**			-0.011
	(0.006)			(0.010)
PDI*High_RFA	0.005			-0.012
	(0.006)			(0.008)
PDI*Low_RFA	0.000			0.005
	(0.006)			(0.008)
PDI*Pubsec_Dummy	-0.006			-0.007
	(0.004)			(0.006)
High_RFA*Pubsec_Dummy*PDI	0.004			0.009
	(0.004)			(0.006)
Low_RFA*Pubsec_Dummy*PDI	0.010			-0.005
	(0.006)			(0.013)
IDV		0.016**		0.013
		(0.005)		(0.007)
IDV*High_RFA		-0.012*		-0.015**
		(0.006)		(0.006)
IDV*Low_RFA		0.000		-0.002
		(0.004)		(0.006)
IDV*Pubsec_Dummy		0.005		-0.003
		(0.003)		(0.005)
High_RFA*Pubsec_Dummy*IDV		-0.001		0.003
		(0.004)		(0.004)
Low_RFA*Pubsec_Dummy*IDV		-0.011**		-0.015
		(0.004)		(0.009)
MAS			-0.008	-0.010
			(0.008)	(0.006)
MAS*High_RFA			0.020*	0.023**
			(0.009)	(0.008)
MAS*Low_RFA			-0.003	0.001
			(0.006)	(0.005)
MAS*Pubsec_Dummy			0.007	0.007
			(0.005)	(0.005)
High_RFA*Pubsec_Dummy*MAS			-0.013*	-0.014**
			(0.005)	(0.005)
Low_RFA*Pubsec_Dummy*MAS			-0.007	-0.003
			(0.006)	(0.006)
UAI			-0.001	0.006
			(0.006)	(0.007)
UAI*High_RFA			0.006	0.007
			(0.006)	(0.005)
UAI*Low_RFA			-0.010*	-0.007
			(0.005)	(0.006)
UAI*Pubsec_Dummy			-0.011*	-0.008*
			(0.005)	(0.003)

High_RFA*Pubsec_Dummy*UAI					0.000	-0.004
					(0.005)	(0.004)
Low_RFA*Pubsec_Dummy*UAI					0.010	0.001
					(0.006)	(0.006)
Controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
R^2	0.033	0.057	0.048	0.039	0.037	0.071

Number of observations: 25311

**, * denotes statistically significant differences at the 1%, 5% level respectively.

Dependent variable Job satisfaction, independent variable PDI, IDV, MAS, UAI and control variable Education are mean-centered.

Variable High RFA, Low RFA, Public sector and Male are dummy variables.

Column 1 of Table 5 presents the results for Hypothesis 6. Both the public sector dummy variable and the interaction variable between high RFA and the public sector dummy have a negative effect (yet not significant) on job satisfaction. However, there is a positive effect between the interaction variable of low RFA and the public sector dummy, and job satisfaction. Interestingly, different RFA levels of an individual do have a different effect between the public and private sector on an individual's job satisfaction. Job satisfaction of an individual with high RFA in the public sector is about 0.068 less than someone with high RFA in the private sector. Job satisfaction of an individual with mediate RFA in the public sector is about 0.062 less than someone with mediate RFA in the private sector. However, an individual with low RFA has about 0.318 higher job satisfaction in the public sector than someone with low RFA in the private sector. Based on the test results, Hypothesis 6 is rejected. The predicted positive effect does not exist; people with low RFA have higher job satisfaction in the public sector, while there are no significant differences for mediate and high RFA.

The test results presented in Table 5 (columns 2-5) show that in the two sectors, job satisfaction of individuals with different levels of RFA are influenced differently depending on the four cultural dimensions. Figure 4 illustrates the comparison between both sectors for the effect of cultural dimensions on job

satisfaction with different levels of RFA[28].

An increase in PDI value of a country has a negative effect on job satisfaction for all three levels of RFA in both the public and private sector. Regarding the individuals with high RFA, there is no significant difference between their job satisfaction levels in the two sectors, especially when the value of PDI is relatively small. For the individuals with mediate RFA, job satisfaction tends to be higher in the public sector than in the private sector when the PDI value is relatively small; and higher in the private than in the public sector when the PDI value is relatively large. However, Wald test results show that the differences are not statistically significant in the given range of PDI value. For individuals with low RFA, the job satisfaction level is always higher in the public sector than in the private sector, and the difference is statistically significant.

On the contrary, IDV has a positive relationship with job satisfaction for all three levels of RFA in both sectors. For individuals with high RFA, higher job satisfaction is generated in the private sector than in the public sector when the IDV value is relatively small, and higher in the public than in the private sector when the IDV value is relatively large. This situation also holds for individuals with mediate RFA. However, the differences are not statistically significant between sectors for either high or mediate RFA level. Individuals with low RFA seem to always have a higher job satisfaction in the public than in the private sector; the difference between sectors is statistically significant in the given range of IDV value although it is decreasing with an increasing IDV value.

In the case of MAS, the results are quite different among the three levels of RFA. Only for individuals with high RFA, MAS has a positive relationship with job satisfaction for both sectors. Those individuals tend to have a higher job satisfaction in the public sector than the private sector when MAS is relatively small. When MAS is relatively large, it becomes the opposite. For individuals with

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[28] In Appendix-Figure 5, additional graphs are presented to show within sector comparisons of interaction between respect for authority and culture scores.

both mediate and low RFA, MAS has a negative relationship with job satisfaction in both sectors. However, this negative relationship is not that strong for the individuals with mediate RFA in the public sector. The ones with mediate RFA have higher job satisfaction in private than in public sector when MAS is relatively small, and the opposite is true when MAS is relatively large. The difference between sectors is not statistically significant for either high or mediate RFA level in the given range of MAS value. Individuals with low RFA seem to always have a higher job satisfaction in the public than in the private sector. The difference stays statistically significant when the mean-centered MAS value is positive.

With regard to UAI, for individuals in the public sector there is a negative relationship between UAI and job satisfaction for all levels of RFA. Individuals with low RFA also show a similar pattern in the private sector. However, for individuals with mediate RFA in the private sector, this negative relationship is not that strong anymore. Increasing in UAI value causes a minor deduction for job satisfaction for those individuals. Moreover, in the case with high RFA individuals in the private sector, the relationship between UAI and job satisfaction becomes positive. For both high and mediate RFA individuals, a higher job satisfaction in the private sector is always generated compared to the public sector when UAI is relatively small, and the opposite is the case when UAI is relatively large, although the differences are only statistically significant when mean-centered UAI value approaches more extreme values.

Another interesting general finding is that for individuals with low RFA level, a higher job satisfaction is always generated in public sector than in private sector in the given range of dimension scores in the test.

Figure 4. Estimated job satisfaction of individuals with different RFA in four cultural dimensions: comparing sectors
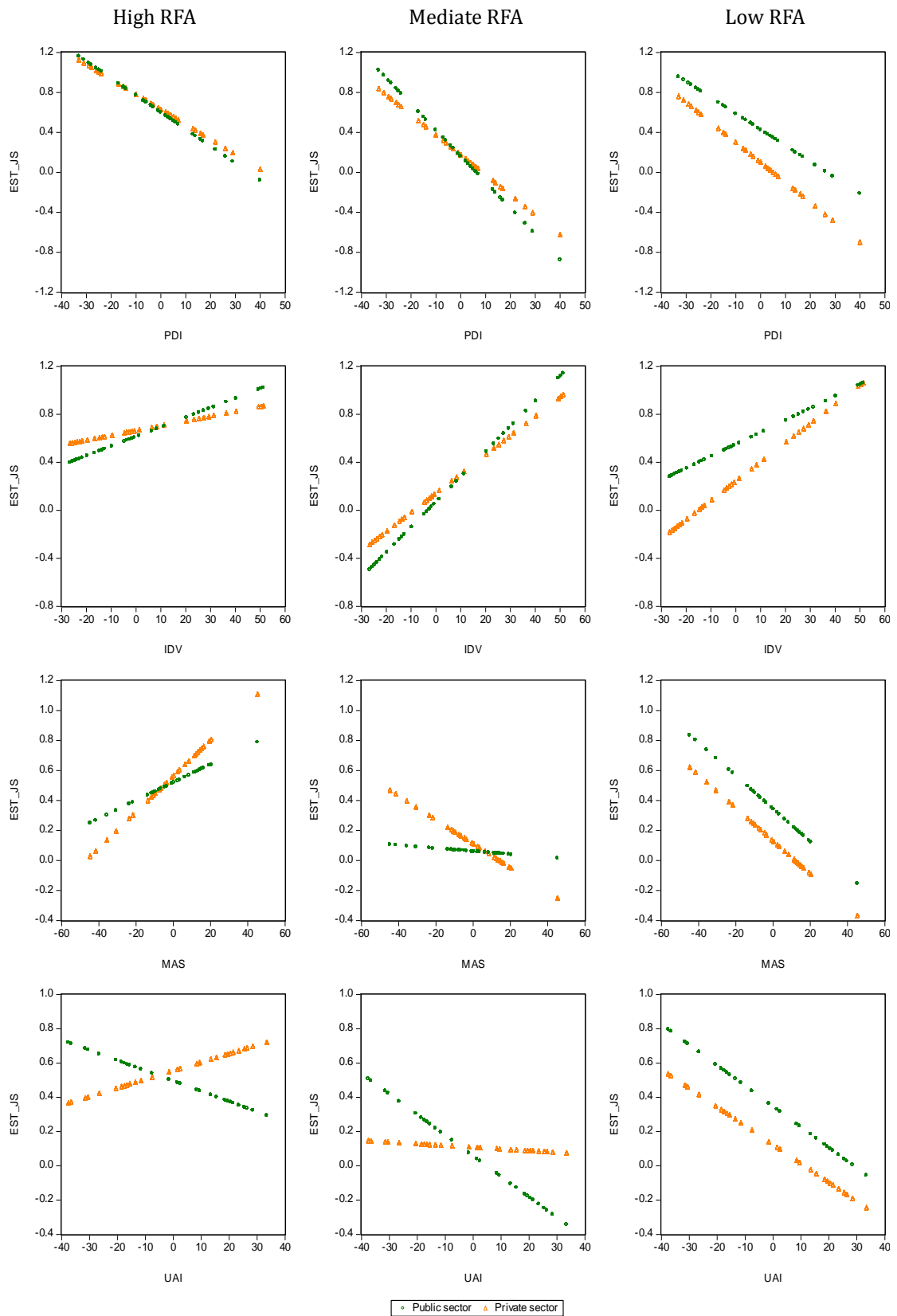
6. Discussion

In this final section the findings are presented along with some discussion of their meanings. The purpose of this thesis was to search for the influence culture has on effects of respect for authority on job satisfaction. First this latter relationship itself was tested, using a large database with individual level respondents in the World Values Survey (WVS) 2005 wave. The results showed only partial support for Hypothesis 1, which stated there would be a positive relationship between respect for authority and job satisfaction. Interestingly, both high and low respect for authority had a positive effect on job satisfaction (the former a bit stronger than the latter) compared to mediate respect for authority. Apparently, the people without a strong opinion about respect for authority have generally lower job satisfaction than those that do have one. One explanation might be that job satisfaction is not stimulated by 'respect for authority' as a good job aspect (good harmony with superior makes people more happy), but by 'respect for authority' as hierarchy awareness. In that case, understanding authority relationships and having a motivated attitude about them makes people more satisfied about working life; or not being concerned about them makes people more easily frustrated if they experience something negative at work without being able to understand it as a 'normal' authority relationship conflict[29].

Focusing on the interaction between Hofstede's cultural dimensions and respect for authority, the country scores for these dimensions were combined with the individual respondents of the WVS. The interaction effects of cultural dimensions with respect for authority on job satisfaction were tested for Hypotheses 2-5. The results are mixed: for Power distance (PDI) and Individualism versus Collectivism (IDV), the expectations could only be partially confirmed, Uncertainty avoidance (UAI)'s hypothesis was correct considering the direction of the effects but lacked statistical significance, while for Masculinity

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[29] This could be comparable to the logic in the 'emotional intelligence' study of Sy et al (2006), which is discussed in the literature review section.

versus Femininity (MAS) the expectations were confirmed.

For PDI, only the difference between individuals having mediate and high respect for authority showed the predicted positive interaction effect on job satisfaction. The fact that the difference between individuals having low and those having mediate respect for authority showed a negative effect is surprising, considering the expectation that people with lower respect for authority would feel more easily frustrated or unhappy in high power distance countries. The test result for IDV was similar: the expected negative interaction effect on job satisfaction was only confirmed by the difference between mediate and high respect for authority individuals. It is possible that these confirmations so far have only been partial, due to the fact that the measure for mediate level of respect for authority could be inaccurate. Now the respondents who answered 'don't mind' on a question about suggested greater respect authority are interpreted as representing a mediate level for authority. However, there is a possibility that those respondents themselves do not have relatively more respect for authority than the respondents who answered 'bad' (and only have an indifferent opinion about it). If this reasoning is correct (the current mediate and low RFA levels would be one low RFA level), then according to the sum of the marginal effects of low and mediate RFA Hypotheses 1-3 would be more supported.

UAI can, as a result of the test, be disregarded as a meaningful dimension for the effect between respect for authority and job satisfaction. However, the result for MAS dimension is specifically interesting. Although according to the literature review this dimension was most weakly related to respect for authority issues, this was the only hypothesis that was fully confirmed by the test results. The positive effect of interaction between MAS and respect for authority on job satisfaction indicates that respect for authority in a more masculine society will be more likely to lead to higher job satisfaction. It could be worthwhile to do further studies exploring what the specific tensions (like the one mentioned in the literature review section) in masculine societies are that affect job

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satisfaction.

Finally, as an extension it was tested whether there was a difference between private and public sector. Hypothesis 6 stated that there would be a stronger positive effect of respect for authority on job satisfaction in the public sector than in the private sector. However, this prediction was rejected: both the direction and comparison were opposing the hypothesis.

The main and somewhat surprising finding of this thesis is that considering Hofstede's cultural dimensions, it is not the one traditionally linked to respect for authority (as Clark (1990) argued) that unambiguously affects its relationship with job satisfaction. Instead, it was found that the Masculinity dimension is the one that may deserve some extra research concerning this topic.

Limitations

A general limitation of this study is the use of a questionnaire to measure variables. There is always a threat of respondents interpreting questions (or concepts) differently. Saari and Judge (2004) mention that due to linguistic factors across countries, survey results can be affected. Kristensen and Johansson (2008) even found the evidence that there are cultural differences in reporting of (job) satisfaction. They warn that comparing subjective well-being cross-country may be problematic. Another problem that is related to reporting satisfaction is pointed out by Ilies and Judge (2002): different moods that the respondent could be in. Based on a collection of data during different times of the day, they found that 29% of the within-individual variance in job satisfaction was explained by mood. This could be a problem if, for example, the data for the WVS is collected during different times for some countries (or even a different year, for example considering economic crisis developments).

It should also be kept in mind that this study's variable of 'job satisfaction' is constructed by combining 'life satisfaction' with 'importance of work in life'. This assumption can be attacked by the argument that not in all cases there is a positive relationship between life satisfaction and job satisfaction. For example,

Qu and Zhao (2012) suggest that in some professions (in their study's case, hotel employees), people see a positive work behavior and attitude as part of the job requirements. In that case they would report high job satisfaction (attitudes) no matter whether their life satisfaction is high or low. Another problem with this constructed variable was that for the main test it excluded people who did not consider work important in their life (this issue was addressed earlier).

Another limitation is the measurement of the variable 'respect for authority'. The concern is the interpretation of the question on which the variable is based. This question is if a change of 'greater respect for authority' in 'our' way of life that may happen in the near future is a good or bad thing. For this analysis, the answers are interpreted as the person's attitude concerning respect for authority. So if the person answers 'good' it is interpreted he or she behaves relatively respectful to authority him- or herself. If the answer is 'bad' it is interpreted he or she does not behave relatively respectful to authority him- or herself. The logic behind this is that if the person for example answers 'good', he or she thinks that the society does not meet his or her (preferred) standard of 'respect for authority'. This leads to the assumption that his or her own 'respect for authority' level is high (or at least higher than the average of the society). The problem with this assumption is that the self-assessment of the respondent may not be accurate (e.g. he or she overestimates his or her own level, or underestimates the society's level). Also, it should be noted that adding all the respondents together does not show the level of respect for authority for the country as a whole.[30] Moreover, interpretation of respect for authority by respondents could differ depending on country or culture. For the extension part of the analysis, there may also be a selection bias. If the number of respondents with high respect for authority is already larger in the public sector based on their prior beliefs (they choose to work there because they believe respect for authority is important). In

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[30] Logically speaking, if most respondents answer 'good', this would mean they consider their own levels of respect for authority high, but the society's level low. So a high percentage of respondents showing 'high respect for authority' indicates 'low respect for authority' of the country itself rather than accumulated 'high respect of authority'.

that case, any tested link between the sector's employees' respect for authority and their job satisfaction is invalid.

The final main limitation mentioned here is the possibility of a reversed relationship between the variables of respect for authority and job satisfaction. The analysis in this thesis does not take into account that it may be possible that job satisfaction actually is an independent variable and respect for authority a dependent variable. In that case, a higher job satisfaction might cause higher respect for authority for example.

Appendix

Table 6: Coefficient estimation results with larger sample

Variable	Estimated coefficient						
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
C	-0.249	-0.248*	-0.306*	-0.257	-0.252	-0.281*	0.291
	(0.151)	(0.125)	(0.139)	(0.153)	(0.151)	(0.132)	(0.276)
High_RFA	0.348*	0.377*	0.416**	0.360*	0.352*	0.401**	0.439**
	(0.150)	(0.130)	(0.143)	(0.141)	(0.138)	(0.097)	(0.095)
Low_RFA	0.273*	0.135	0.314**	0.247	0.244*	0.185	0.092
	(0.126)	(0.122)	(0.114)	(0.127)	(0.110)	(0.107)	(0.094)
PDI		-0.025**				-0.017	-0.017
		(0.005)				(0.010)	(0.010)
High_RFA*PDI		0.003				-0.014	-0.013
		(0.007)				(0.012)	(0.011)
Low_RFA*PDI		0.004				0.003	0.005
		(0.006)				(0.008)	(0.007)
IDV			0.018**			0.010	0.008
			(0.004)			(0.007)	(0.007)
High_RFA*IDV			-0.011*			-0.016*	-0.016*
			(0.005)			(0.008)	(0.007)
Low_RFA*IDV			-0.004			-0.007	-0.004
			(0.004)			(0.006)	(0.006)
MAS				-0.009		-0.01	-0.009
				(0.009)		(0.007)	(0.006)
High_RFA*MAS				0.005		0.009	0.008
				(0.012)		(0.009)	(0.009)
Low_RFA*MAS				-0.003		0.002	0.001
				(0.007)		(0.005)	(0.005)
UAI					-0.001	0.003	0.002
					(0.006)	(0.005)	(0.005)
High_RFA*UAI					0.001	0.004	0.004
					(0.006)	(0.005)	(0.005)
Low_RFA*UAI					-0.007	-0.003	-0.002
					(0.005)	(0.005)	(0.005)
Male_Dummy							-0.123
							(0.072)
Age							-0.029**
							(0.010)
Age Squard							0.000**
							(0.000)
Education							0.114**
							(0.114)
R^2	0.005	0.041	0.021	0.009	0.005	0.049	0.064

Number of observations: 32870

**, * denotes statistically significant differences at the 1%, 5% level respectively.

Dependent variable Job satisfaction, independent variable PDI, IDV, MAS, UAI and Education are mean-centered.

Variable High RFA, Low RFA and Male are dummy variables.

Figure 5. The estimated job satisfaction of individuals with different RFA in four cultural dimensions in different sectors
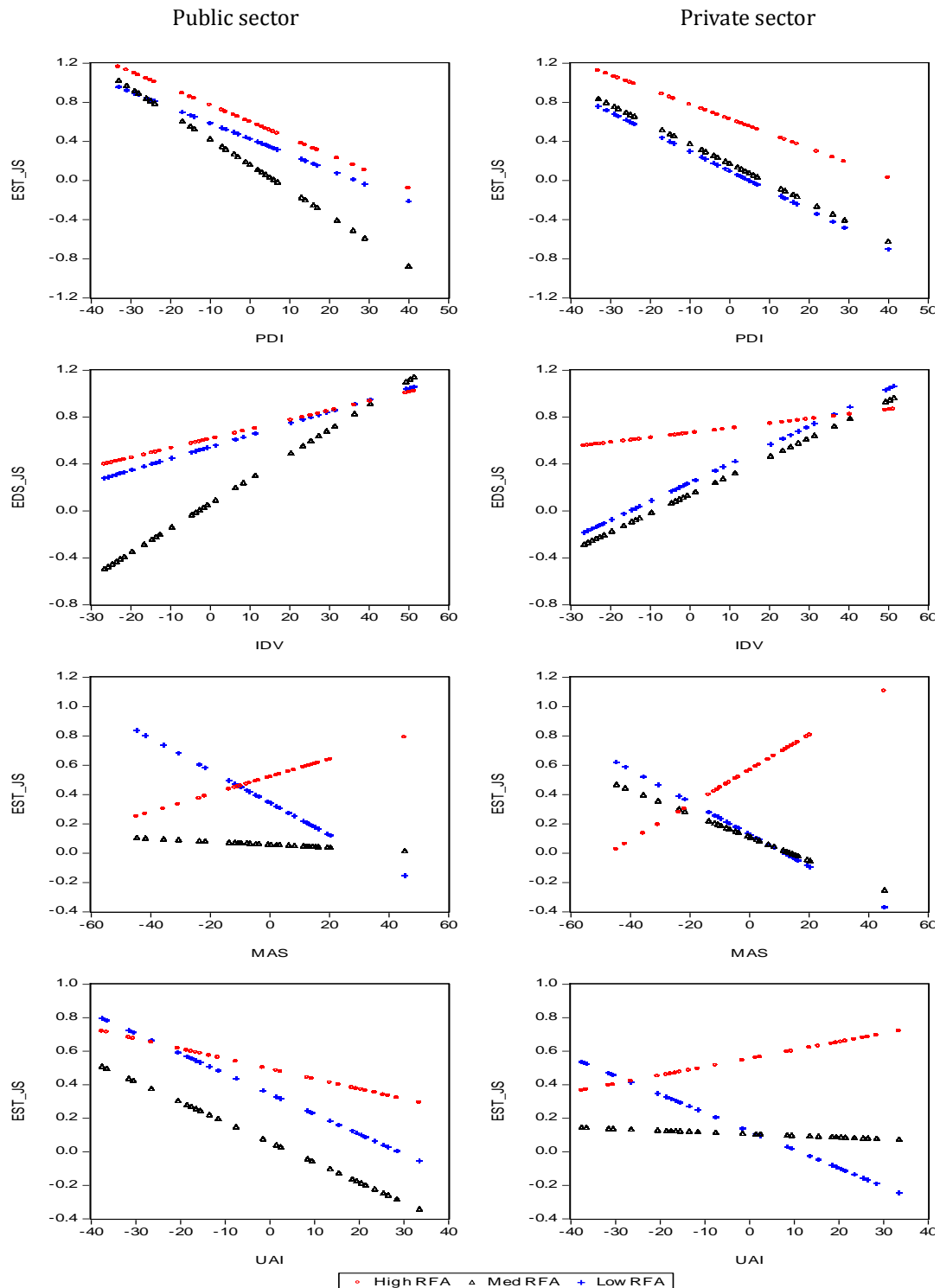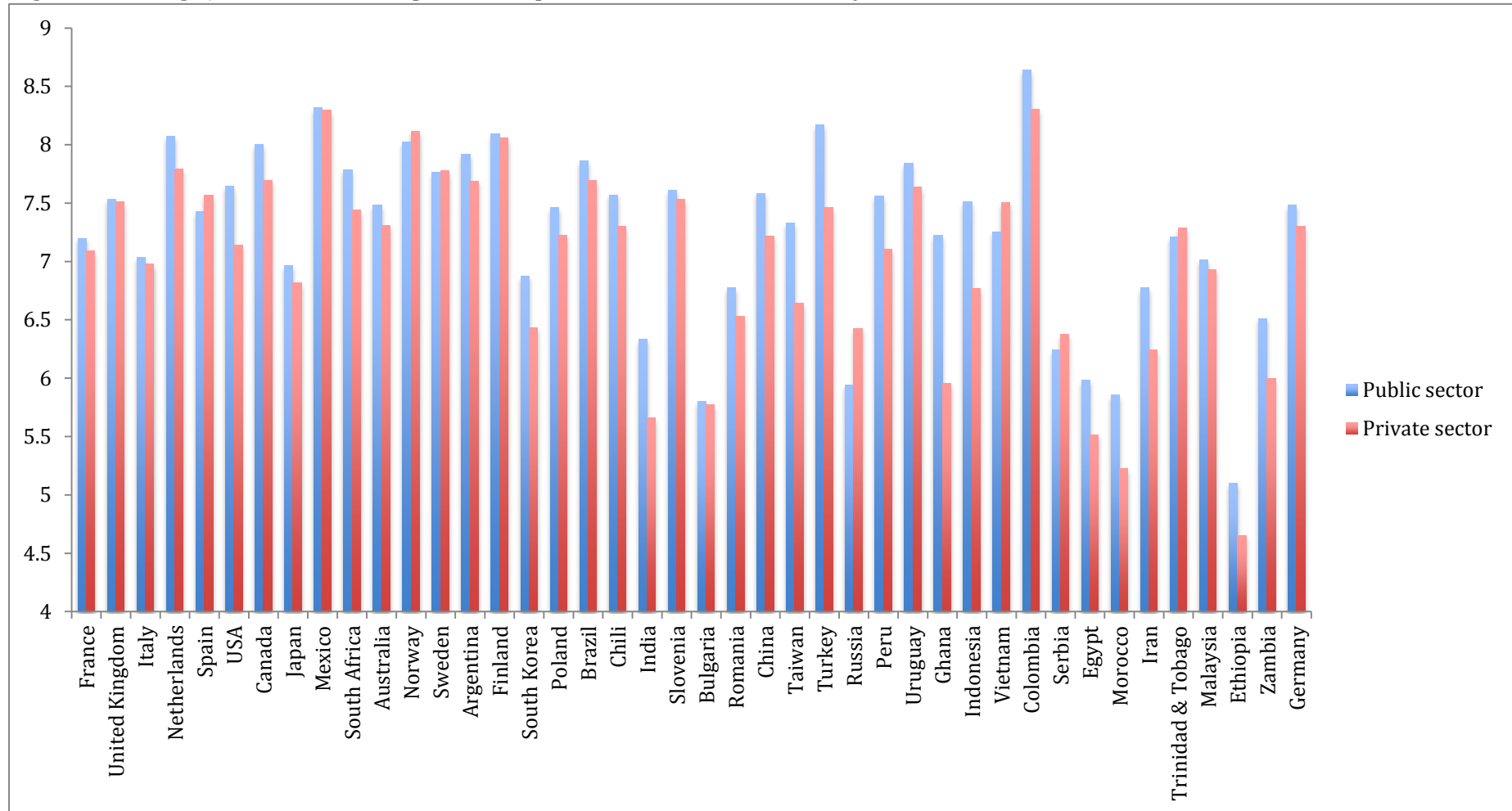
Figure 6: Average job satisfaction in public and private sector of each country

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