

**Charles University**  
Faculty of Social Sciences  
Institute of Economic Studies



BACHELORS'S THESIS

**Gender paradox of job satisfaction in the  
Czech Republic in European comparison**

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## **Declaration of Authorship**

I hereby proclaim that I wrote my bachelor thesis on my own under the leadership of my supervisor and that the references include all resources and literature I have used.

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## Abstract

The gender job satisfaction paradox is a phenomenon occurring when despite their disadvantaged labour market position, women consistently report higher levels of job satisfaction than men. This thesis aims to verify the presence of a gender paradox of job satisfaction, analyze the labor conditions and job perceptions of workers in the Czech Republic to provide employers a sense of job aspects making male and female workers more productive, motivated and satisfied. The study uses sub-sample of employees from International Social Survey Programme data from 2015. The study applies four regression models to reveal the relationship between job satisfaction and gender, other socio-demographic factors and various work aspects. The outcomes revealed some significant differences between males and females, specifically discrimination based on sex or disadvantage of women regarding income and access to leading positions. Despite the theory of gender paradox, predicting women to be more satisfied at work than men, the analysis showed the opposite. This study discovered, that the most relevant aspects of work, that affect the overall job satisfaction are relations with co-workers and management, interesting job, independence at work and specifically for men having subordinate(s), working on weekends, opportunities for advancement or given freedom in deciding about working hours. In European comparison the Czech Republic shows average results regarding job satisfaction. Generally, male workers in Europe tend to be more satisfied than female workers.

**JEL Classification** J16, J31, J71, J78,

**Keywords** Czech Republic, discrimination, gender inequality, gender paradox, job satisfaction, segregation, women

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## Abstrakt

Genderový paradox spokojenosti s prací nastává v případě, kdy ženy vykazují vyšší hodnotu pracovní spokojenosti navzdory horším pracovním podmínkám ve srovnání s muži. Tato práce se zabývá tématem Genderového paradoxu uspokojení s prací, analyzuje podmínky na trhu práce a jeho vnímání zaměstnanců v České republice za účelem přiblížit zaměstnavatelům pracovní aspekty, které mohou zvýšit výkonnost, motivaci a spokojenost pracovníků. Ke studii byla použita data z ISSP 2015, obsahující vzorek 1435 respondentů. Ta byla analyzována vyhodnocením regresí na základě čtyřech modelů, sestavených z proměnných ze socio-demografických faktorů a různých pracovních aspektů. Výsledky odhalily jisté rozdíly mezi pohlavími, konkrétně diskriminaci na základě pohlaví pracovníka, nebo znevýhodněnost žen týkající se příjmu a uplatnění ve vedoucích pozicích. Navzdory teorii genderového paradoxu, která vykazuje větší pracovní spokojenost žen, ukázal náš vzorek opak. Studie prokázala jako nejvíce relevantní aspekty práce ovlivňující celkovou pracovní spokojenost hlavně vztahy na pracovišti, zajímavost práce, samostatnost v práci a především u mužů počet podřízených pracovníků, práci o víkendech, možnosti kariérního postupu, nebo volnost v rozhodování o pracovní době. V Evropském srovnání vykazuje Česká republika průměrné výsledky. Ženy obecně vykazují nižší úroveň spokojenosti, než muži.

**Klasifikace JEL**

J16, J31, J71, J78,

**Klíčová slova**

Česká republika, genderová nerovnost, genderový paradox, segregace, spokojenost s prací, ženy

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# Bachelor's Thesis Proposal

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## Proposed Topic:

*Gender paradox of job satisfaction in the Czech Republic in European comparison*

## Preliminary scope of work:

### **Research question and motivation**

In general, the empirics show that women value job aspects differently than men. Women's job satisfaction is typically more related to how interesting the job is, flexibility between work and home, independence in work, or good relationship with colleagues and management. Men's level of satisfaction usually increases with higher income or job security. One of the most widely analyzed aspects of job satisfaction is gender. The empirics mostly concur that women are more satisfied at work despite the existing gender wage gap and despite women's disadvantaged position in the labor market – the so called gender paradox. This phenomenon has already been observed in many European countries.

According to two latest survey data containing a question on job satisfaction, it seems that the gender paradox does not occur in the Czech Republic; meaning that women are, on average, not significantly more satisfied with their job than men. Possible explanations should be examined in order to assess the rather exceptional Czech situation compared to the European countries. Similarly to the European empirics, Czech women might preferably value "soft" aspects of job but not sufficiently enough to be more satisfied than men. Or their jobs do not possess these aspects and thus they are less or equally satisfied as men.

The main aim of my study is to verify the existence of the gender paradox in the Czech Republic and compare the results with selected European countries. Further, I intend to analyze the factors of job satisfaction and differences in job preferences between genders. The diversity in working conditions across countries as well as contrasts in job characteristic preferences might bring valuable insight into country-specific working terms or expectations of labor.

### **Contribution**

Job satisfaction has not been thoroughly analyzed in the Czech empirics so far, moreover, to my knowledge, there is no study focused on the gender aspect. First, job satisfaction is an important factor both for the employers and employees as it has been evidenced by the empirics that satisfied workers are more productive. Second, the gender aspect of job satisfaction might shed more light on the overall Czech gender inequality on the labor market, and possibly contribute to a discussion on the high level of the Czech gender wage gap.

The results for the Czech Republic will be compared with the results of other European countries. I aim to supplement the study for the Czech Republic by a cross-country comparison and the analysis of contributive factors. Such an analysis might reveal interesting country-specific correlations of working attitudes and life-style.

Assessing job conditions valued by women while applying for a job or accepting job offers could contribute to the empirical knowledge of labor economics and reveal more details of how successful our country is in providing both male and female workers sufficient job satisfaction.

### ***Methodology***

The analysis will be based on various survey data, which contains variables on job satisfaction and/or work values. The main data sources which might be available are International Social Survey Programme (ISSP) and European Union—Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC). ISSP involved modules on “work orientations” in 1997, 2005, and 2015. EU-SILC included a question on job satisfaction only in its 2013 module on “well-being”.

My study will apply an econometric model of job satisfaction as the dependent variable in several steps. First, gender as the only explanatory variable will be used in order to reveal the “raw” difference in job satisfaction between women and men. In the next steps, I will add various control variables (individual, work, and/or household characteristics, depending on the data source possibilities) and analyze how the gender coefficient changes. I also intend to detect how important the different job qualities are for both genders separately.

### ***Outline***

1. Introduction
2. Literature review
3. Data and variables
4. Methodology
5. Results (the Czech Republic and comparison)
6. Summary and Conclusion
7. References

### **List of academic literature:**

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# Acronyms

**ESS** European Social Survey

**EU-SILC** European Union—Statistics on Income and Living Conditions

**EVS** European Values Study

**ISCED** International Standard Classification of Education

**ISSP** International Social Survey Programme

**OLS** Ordinary least squares

**SWB** Subjective well-being

# Chapter 1

## Introduction

The alleged, universally valid gender-job satisfaction paradox suggests that women possess a higher level of overall job satisfaction as compared to men, despite an obvious disadvantaged position of women in the labour market. Regarding gender work and job-related values, the so called gender paradox is one of the most widely analyzed issues of job satisfaction. There are plenty of possible explanations of existence of the gender paradox. According to Kaiser (2007), the paradox exists because the gap between females' expectations and actually reached job aspects and conditions is low compared to males. Job satisfaction is an important predictor of job switching. Knowledge of the factors of job satisfaction offers business owners and management staff the ability to shape the work environment so that the most valuable, loyal, and experienced employees can be retained in the company. Higher employee well-being is associated with better job performance, lower absenteeism, and reduced job turnover, and is therefore of particular interest to firms and other organizations (Frey 2002). It can entail these judgments and attitudes to multiple facets such as work, pay, promotion opportunities, supervision, and coworkers (Smith 1969), or to the job in a global sense (Judge 2001).

The aim of this thesis is to test the hypothesis that the gender paradox occurs in the Czech Republic and compare the job aspects affecting workers' job satisfaction. While the literature suggests that some women do care about their income, which thus influences their level of satisfaction, others find that women majorly focus on the level of flexibility for work life balance with whatever job they decide to venture. This thus influences the nature of job they choose. These job aspects valued by both male and female workers may vary across nations and this study is focused on results mainly for the Czech Republic.

This study will also test a modified hypothesis, that even though there is no significant gender difference in average job satisfaction, with controlling for aspects of work, the gender difference appears and women are less satisfied than men.

The thesis is structured as follows: Chapter 2 deals with both empirical and theoretical research literature on the subject of gender paradox to provide an information on the background and better idea of generally used methodology regarding such topics. Chapter 3 describes used survey questions and answers and explains variables creation and their predicted effect. Chapter 4 introduces the methodology used to analyze the data and describes respective regression models. Chapter 5 presents results of several different types of analysis. Chapter 6 summarizes our findings.

# Chapter 2

## Literature Review

### 2.1 Relevant job satisfaction theories

Job satisfaction has been an object of interest of many specialists. This topic is very relevant when it comes to different areas of social sciences. It is mostly researched by psychologists and sociologists in order to find the factors affecting happiness of people and survey the overall population's employment contentment. Apart from that, data on job satisfaction can reveal some very important information regarding the field of economy. Especially in the labor market it is necessary for employers to know the needs of the workers and get a notion about the issue. This knowledge is extensively helpful in terms of firms rising the labour supply as well as increasing current employees' productivity by providing a right motivation and desired job conditions for meeting the workers' or her requirements and expectations.

Previous research suggests that workers' job satisfaction is related to working conditions, and it has identified intrinsic and extrinsic job dimensions as major determinants for job satisfaction (Kalleberg 1977; Ronen 1979; Moyes 2006). The intrinsic dimension is directly related to the job contents. Individuals valuing this dimension have a desire to perform interesting tasks, to be challenged by the job, and to develop and realize own ideas. The extrinsic dimension and work-life balance do not refer to the characteristics associated with the task itself. Extrinsic dimension is related to income and career opportunity. Individuals valuing this dimension have a desire for advancement and recognition and a desire to obtain monetary rewards from the job. Furthermore, work-life balance reflects an important job dimension which relates to valuation of labour conditions, such as good work schedule, freedom from conflicting demands or

convenient travel from and to work. Individuals may differ with respect to the importance they attach to these work dimensions.

Bönte and Krabel (2014), when analyzing the factors influencing job satisfaction of male and female graduates, distinguish between valence and job rewards. Valence of a job dimension refers to the importance an individual places on the respective job attributes, whereas perceived job rewards refer to an individual's evaluation of his or her actual job with regard to these job attributes. For instance, a female graduate may report a high level of valence with respect to intrinsic dimension, i.e. she attaches much importance to interesting and challenging work, while her current job does hardly provide any intrinsic rewards. Even though this woman might have substantial income, her level of job satisfaction does not increase unless she is provided with sufficient satisfaction in valence and intrinsic dimension. As some working aspects, such as income or career growth, are less significant for her than the others, their change does not have a big impact on change in her overall job satisfaction. On the other hand, when improving the highly valued aspects of work, the satisfaction of worker with it rises by way greater degree. Bönte and Krabel (2014) argue that women may have systematically lower levels of importance – or valence – than men with regard to a number of work attributes, which implies that women should be more satisfied than men when doing identical jobs.

Psychologist Herzberg (1959) came with a Two-factor Theory introducing two basic factors affecting employee's job satisfaction. This theory distinguishes between so called motivators and hygiene factors. The motivators (e.g. challenging work, recognition for one's achievement, responsibility, opportunity to do something meaningful, involvement in decision making, sense of importance to an organization) are characterized by giving positive satisfaction, arising from intrinsic conditions of the job itself, such as recognition, achievement, or personal growth. On the other hand, the hygiene factors (e.g. status, job security, salary, fringe benefits, work conditions, good pay, paid insurance, vacations) provide neither positive satisfaction nor lead to higher motivation, though dissatisfaction results from their absence regardless the gender of employee. Hygiene factors can only cause external happiness but they are not powerful enough to convert dissatisfaction into satisfaction but still its presence is too much important. Even though this study does not take into consideration any differences between perception of male and female workers, it explains effectively the overall general principles of work incentives. According to this theory, both hygiene and motivation factors are linked with each other, as hy-

giene factors move employee from job dissatisfaction to no job dissatisfaction, whereas motivation factors moves employees from no job dissatisfaction to job satisfaction (Herzberg 1959).

There are numerous psychological theories that attempt to explain the determinants of subjective well-being (SWB). One possible categorization distinguishes between two types of frameworks: bottom-up theories and top-down theories. Bottom-up theories analyze the effects that external events, situations, and demographics have on SWB. In essence, this model assumes that there are basic and universal human needs, and that if an individual's needs are fulfilled in the current situation, then he or she will be happy (Diener 1999). This framework therefore postulates that happiness is simply the sum of many small pleasures, and that a person will judge his or her life as happy if the pleasures outweigh the pains. In other words, it proceeds from the premises of a "naturalistic" approach, which assumes that SWB is something like the sum of positive and negative affects, which the more or less "livable" circumstances of living in an environment induce among its inhabitants (Walter-Busch 2000; Veenhoven 1996). Top-down theories, on the other hand, assume that there is a global propensity to experience things in a positive way, and this propensity influences the momentary interactions an individual has with the world (Diener 1984). In this latter approach, an individual's personality plays a central role.

## 2.2 Employment conditions and job satisfaction

It was found that different factors within the working environment such as wages, working hours, autonomy given to employees, organizational structure and communication between employees and management may affect individual's job satisfaction (Lane 2010). There are various studies focusing on diverse aspects of work, that affect the overall job satisfaction of employees and in numerous cases there are significant differences in perception of these job facets between female and male workers.

The mostly examined job aspect is income. In majority of cases it is more or less the main incentive for working regardless the job satisfaction. Unlike other factors of job satisfaction it was found that both genders are increasingly becoming more satisfied with their pay over time. Kifle & Kler (2007) analyzed not only overall job satisfaction but also specific satisfaction with income. Labour market personal characteristics play no significant role in de-

termining female satisfaction while years worked and years out of the labour force affect males' current satisfaction with pay. Not surprisingly, overtime and casual work and higher hourly wages are positively associated with higher levels of pay satisfaction. Part-time work is negatively associated with income satisfaction for females only. Opposed to women, workplace characteristics are not associated with such satisfaction for men.

Another observed aspect affecting the happiness of workers is the security of job. Probst (2001) found that dissatisfaction with job security has a negative impact on the overall job satisfaction, which relates to other factors of satisfaction with the job (e.g. pay and promotion opportunities). Generally, job insecurity has been associated with negative job-related outcomes. For example, when faced with perceived job insecurity, employees may report lower and reduced motivations due to decreased job satisfaction and organization commitment. Job insecurity may even foster a strong tendency or desire to leave the organization (Davy 1997; Probst 2000; 2002).

In a meta-analysis, Sverke (2002) found that job insecurity is negatively correlated not only with job satisfaction, but also with trust and job involvement, and positively correlated with employees' turnover intentions. As expected, casual work is negatively associated with job security satisfaction. Working in excess of 40 hours a week increases satisfaction with job security only for males while higher hourly wages only increase satisfaction with job security for females. According to Kifle & Kler (2007), workplace characteristics play a stronger role for males in forming associations with job security, though for both genders, working in small firms and having supervisory roles improve satisfaction with job security.

Kifle & Kler (2007) found that it is also the type of work and hours of work that show similarity in the impact on job satisfaction of both genders with the exception of part-time work. They reported that males are less satisfied with hours worked than females. This tends to suggest that males working part-time are less satisfied with hours worked than females working part-time. The relationship between satisfaction with job flexibility and type of work and hours of work are largely similar for both genders. Casual work is however only positively associated with job flexibility satisfaction for females. Workplace characteristics also remain largely gender neutral when associated with satisfaction with job flexibility with the exception of supervisory roles with negative association for women (Kifle & Kler 2007).

Many times discussed aspect having a significant impact on job satisfaction is the job position or the actual occupation of the worker. In general, individuals in occupations dominated by or associated with the opposite sex may have ambiguous feelings about their work because such posts violate their own identity or that of their coworkers and thus may suffer a utility loss. Therefore, gender segregation may persist in the labor market because people refuse to choose a job that is stereotypically associated with the opposite sex (Akerlof 2000).

Sloane (2000) reported higher levels of job satisfaction for females compared to males, despite females earning lower pay. They also note that this could be due to females having lower expectations. Nevertheless, females in male dominated workplaces have similar satisfaction levels compared to males, perhaps reflecting higher expectations. Similar results were observed by Simon Janssen (2014), who found out that women in stereotypically male jobs are less satisfied with their work climate and their contents of tasks, but they are more satisfied with their income. Such results are usually typical for male respondents. Thus, this findings would lead to the idea that it is not the sex of workers, and so the differences in valuation of specific job aspects, that causes the gender paradox, but the characteristic of the job typical for each gender. Job satisfaction level is typically higher in female dominated workplaces. Clark (1997) and his expectations argument, supported by the UK data from the early 1990s, is in accordance with job satisfaction differences associated with gender segregation: women in male dominated workplaces possess higher expectations and, hence, they acquire lower satisfaction levels.

Looking closer to individual work positions, it was found that workers employed in highly-ranked occupations such as managers and professionals tend to be more satisfied with their jobs in general but have to face a higher workload with regard to their number of working hours (Kaiser 2007). Those individuals working in the service sector show a clear dissatisfaction with the number of working hours. Workers employed in the public sector report a higher level of job satisfaction. For the remaining occupations (agricultural and fishery workers, craft and related trade workers, plant and machine operators and assemblers, elementary occupations) a clear job satisfaction gender gap, regardless of the observed job satisfaction category, can be identified (Kaiser 2007).

## 2.3 Gender differences

A lot of studies focused on job satisfaction strictly from gender perspective. They mostly concur that the gender gap in job satisfaction is caused by differences in expectations of genders as well as diverse priorities regarding to respective characteristics of work. However, the impact of some factors remains ambiguous due to various results of different studies.

Many authors follow Clark (1997) and his interpretation where job satisfaction is a function of expectations. Women, based on their past experience with worse jobs, have lower expectations about labour market outcomes and, hence, these expectations can be more easily fulfilled. Clark's interpretation, derived from the data from the 1991 British Household Panel Survey, includes gender segregation and various characteristics leading to higher female expectations: male-dominated workplaces, managerial positions, younger and higher-educated workers etc. In jobs where women tend to have higher expectations the gender difference in job satisfaction disappears (Clark 1997).

Kifle & Kler (2007) analyzed the impact of labour market characteristics on job satisfaction separately for men and women. They observed that, generally, females enjoy higher levels of workplace satisfaction compared to males with the exception of satisfaction with job flexibility. They also noted that only years of unemployment are insignificantly associated with overall job satisfaction for males, while all other labour market characteristics stated in their study, such as supervisory responsibilities, union membership, health problems or overtimes, are negatively associated with overall job satisfaction. For females however, mainly the tenure with current employer and years of unemployment have a negative association with job satisfaction. Type of work and hours of work are largely similar with the exception of casual work and they also found that union membership and supervisory roles are negatively associated with overall job satisfaction for females only.

Generally speaking, male workers are stereotypically supposed to rate their job satisfaction primarily according to the extrinsic dimension. As from way back, men's role in the family was to provide sufficient source of livelihood for the whole household. Even though gender differences are getting smaller in the course of time and many women nowadays are either equal or even more highly paid than men, this stereotypical burden has not vanished completely. Many men can feel under pressure when it comes to responsibility for financial security of other members of the family. They might think they cannot afford

to complain about soft aspects, such as relationships with co-workers, flexible working hours and other additional working conditions, as long as there is essential need for financial reward. In other words, they could not afford to complain or lose job because of their dissatisfaction with local working environment, because the financial reward provided is currently prominent.

Similar responsibilities are connected to female part of population. Bender (2005) found that women choose female dominated jobs as these jobs are more flexible. Based on the U.S. data from 1997, they questioned the key role of expectations by arguing that women's higher satisfaction is associated with higher flexibility between work and home and once controlled for this factor the gender segregation loses its role. As women are expected to be in charge of the household chores, they have to devote enough time to take care of children, cook, do the housework and create an overall pleasing environment. This can be rarely managed together with long working hours or too much stress in an employment. It usually results to women preferring to dedicate themselves to family instead of earning money, which is supposed to be secured by man.

There are still certain short-term stalls, slow-downs, and even reverses, as well as important differences in national policy contexts. However, the overall cross-national picture, for example, shows a continuing trend towards greater gender equality in the division of housework. That depicts a general movement in the direction of greater gender equality, but with significant country differences in both the level and the pace of convergence (Altintas 2016).

## 2.4 Gender paradox situation in Europe

The conditions of a workplace strongly depend on the institutional background of the national labour market regime, e.g. the social security system, taxation or the child day care infrastructure, which influences labour supply opportunities (Dingeldey 2001; Kaiser 2006). Goldin (1986), when examining establishment-level data on supervising male and female workers in time- and piece-rate positions, found, that in fact, two-thirds of either the female or male labour force would have to change their occupations to achieve the wage and occupational gender-equality (Goldin 1986).

Kaiser (2007) agrees that, in general, objective employment conditions and individual estimation of the job satisfaction levels are mutually interdependent. However, the more restrictive the labour market access is for women, the more likely a gender-job satisfaction paradox is to emerge in that country. In those countries where statistically significant gap occurs, women mostly display a higher level of satisfaction with job security than men, but a lower level of satisfaction with the number of working hours. However, equal opportunities for women and men indicate that the gender-job satisfaction paradox does not appear anymore due to a fading-out process over past decades, which was driven by appropriate institutional labour market interventions (Kaiser 2007).

For example, in the Nordic countries, the social democratic principles that guide policy design are generally paired with a commitment to gender equality, while the market-replicating principles in the conservative countries are often embedded in socially conservative ideas about family and gender roles. In the liberal countries, the supremacy of the market system generally drives social welfare designs across all policy arenas (Meyers 2003).

Kaiser (2005) also showed on The European Community Household Panel (ECHP) data from the second half of the 1990s that labor market modernization in the sense of equal gender opportunities is likely to be the reason of the “faded-away” gender paradox in Denmark, Finland, and the Netherlands. In the majority of countries of Western Europe, women’s higher job satisfaction prevailed. Also Sousa-Poza (2000) argued that the gender paradox cannot be generalized. Among 21 countries, including the Czech Republic, analysed based on International Social Survey Programme (ISSP) 1997 data, women exhibited lower satisfaction levels than men in more than half of them. Using the bottom-up theory approach, in which they compared work-role inputs (e.g., effort) with work-role outputs (e.g., pay), they argued that, at the all-country

level, gender differences in job satisfaction can be explained by work-role inputs and outputs. At a country level, gender differences were significant only in four countries. Hence, in all the other countries, the gender paradox either did not exist or was explained by work-role inputs and outputs.

Sousa-Poza & Sousa-Poza (2003) undertook a specific look at Britain using 1991-2000 data and found evidence of falling levels of job satisfaction among females over time, whereas men's job satisfaction has remained fairly constant. The positive job-satisfaction differential in women's favour has been halved in the past decade, implying that this paradoxical situation is most likely transitory. Kaiser (2005) showed females to have higher levels of job satisfaction in 10 countries, suggesting that higher satisfaction levels among females might not be an 'Anglo-Saxon paradox', how they named it, after all. Equal employment opportunities, appropriate child day care and tax and social security system are the reasons given by Kaiser (2005) to the absence of gender job satisfaction difference.

# Chapter 3

## Data and descriptive statistics

### 3.1 Data Source

For this study I am going to use data from self-funding association International Social Survey Programme (ISSP). It is a cross-national collaboration programme conducting annual surveys on diverse topics relevant to social sciences. Besides the core questions on socio-demographic characteristics, individuals' perceptions, current status etc. repeated in each wave, the survey involves a module on a specific topic each year. The list of modules currently comprises of role of government, social networks, social inequality, family and changing gender roles, work orientations, religion, environment, national identity, citizenship, leisure time and sports, health and health care. The survey programme regularly responds to current developments in social sciences by including new topics or developing new modules. The subtopics of the module vary with every new wave. In Czech Republic the fieldwork institute was STEM/MARK, Prague.

I only use one data source as the amount of provided information is sufficient for my analysis. Even though for example European Union—Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC) 2013 contains data on job satisfaction, it only contains basic job characteristics, while detailed job aspects are missing. Furthermore, it is fairly difficult to get an access to this source as a student. Also the European Values Study (EVS), a cross-national survey of attitudes, opinions and values, that is produced by Tilburg University and partners is not really suitable for this study. The newest data from 2017 do not cover the topic of job satisfaction and job aspects and previous surveys are way older and thus less actual. Another cross-national survey providing data freely available for

research purposes is the European Social Survey (ESS). Unfortunately, even this source focused the last survey in 2016 on different topics and the topic of family, work and well-being was lastly covered in 2010.

Specifically, I am going to use the results of ISSP survey conducted in 2015, which included the module on work orientations. The questionnaire was answered by persons above the age of 18 with exception of Finland (15 to 74 years) and Estonia (15 years and over). The module questions can be divided into two groups. First type of questions is related to general opinions and perceptions and is responded by all individuals, regardless they are working or not. Second type concerns values of a concrete job, thus, answered only by employees.

The size of the overall sample for the Czech Republic is shown in Table 3.1. The total sample of 1435 persons comprise of 43% males and 57% females. This study is focused primarily on employees, in other words, the sub-sample of employed individuals (according to questions *Are you currently employed?* and *Are you currently gainfully employed?*), who stated to be an employee (not self-employed or working for own family's business) in the question *What is your current economic status, main source of subsistence?*. While the overall sample is over-represented by women (compared to the official census statistics of population in the Czech Republic finding that 49.1% of population are men and 50.9% are women (CzechStatisticalOffice 2017), the working sub-sample is more balanced, given female lower employment rate. It is represented by 48% of males and 52% of females. Specifically, 820 respondents (395 men and 425 women) were employees at the time of the survey and, thus, were asked to answer the specific questions related to their job.

Table 3.1: Czech data sample

	Men	Women	Total
Number of observations	614	821	1435
- of which are employees	64%	52%	57%
- of which are not employees	36%	48%	43%
Total	100%	100%	100%

Source: ISSP 2015. Sample of all individuals

The questions in ISSP are often of subjective and sensitive nature, or can be hard to assess by some individuals. Respondents have a possibility to refuse to answer a concrete question, choose 'don't know' option, or 'cannot decide' option. The data are, thus, burdened by certain item-nonresponse, up to 23% (*How high is your income?*). For this reason, tables shown in next chapters

state the number of observations for each question separately as the observations including missing values for certain question were dropped.

## 3.2 Variables description and data modification

In order to analyze the data not only by using econometric regressions, but also evaluating both the perceptions of gender (in)equality of Czechs and their experience regarding the labor conditions, the variables are divided into two groups. First one consists of those questions, that reveal individual perceptions and opinions on the situation on the Czech labor market. The second group covers variables used in regression models to provide information on their impact on the explained variable.

### 3.2.1 Evaluated questions

The data used in this thesis contain various questions aimed to reveal the perception of gender job equality of people living in the Czech Republic, to outline the actual situation in the labour market in this country and the position of women in it.

Focusing on gender inequality, there is a set of questions comprising from those asking on respondent's perceptions and the actual situation at their workplace. Starting with completing a statement '*The needed steps towards gender equality in Czech Republic...*' with possible options 'has already been done' and 'have to be done'. This information reveals how Czech society perceive the situation. Following set of questions asked either the whole sample on their general opinions on the Czech labor market or the sub-sample of employed on the current situation in their workplace. Respondents choose either 'men' or 'women' to answer questions focused on work posts and opportunities (*According to your opinion, who has easier access to get a leading position in a big company?*, *Who has easier access to get a leading position in a civil services or non-profit companies?*, *In your current employment, how is it with the opportunities to get to a leading position?*) and also on income inequality (*Who do you think always have higher income in the Czech Republic?*, *In your current employment, how is it with incomes?*). In terms of revealing the potential gender income gap, information on gender and income level provided in the survey will also be processed.

The questions on discrimination can be also used to assess the level of inequality. Respondents answering with 'Yes' the question *Over the past five years, have you been discriminated against with regard to work?* were asked to specify the presumed reason (*In your opinion, what was the main reason for the discrimination?*) choosing from options age, sex, family responsibilities, race/ethnicity, nationality, religion, political beliefs, disability, or other.

To gain deeper into the motivation of workers, a set of questions covering incentives and priorities of employees will be used. First, respondents decide whether or not they agree with the statement *A job is just a way of earning money - no more*. Second, they provide answers on *Have you ever given up or would you give up good job opportunities for the benefit of your family life?* and *Have you ever remained or would you remain in a job that was not satisfying for you for the benefit of your family life?* On each question they can choose from options 'Yes, I have done so and probably would do so again.', 'Yes, I have done so but probably would not do so again.', 'No, I have not done so but probably would do so.', 'No, I have not done so and probably would not do so.' All the results will be processed using tables with percentage distribution of answers of the sample and both male and female workers respectively (see Chapter 5).

### 3.2.2 Model variables

The main analysis of this study is focused on job satisfaction and its relation to various job aspects. The dependent variable in the presented models is thus job satisfaction. Respondents answered the question *How satisfied are you in your (main) job?* on a 7-point scale between completely dissatisfied (1) and completely satisfied (7). This rating was though adjusted by reversing the scale in order to make the data more reasonable and easier for interpretation. Thus, the value of variable *jobsatisfaction* is 7 for completely satisfied workers and 1 for those completely dissatisfied.

The key explanatory variable is gender. The other explanatory variables consist of questions including socio-demographic characteristics such as age, education, marital status, etc. and individual job characteristics, for example, working hours, home office, stressful work, relations with colleagues and others. Focusing more closely on the variables used in the model, each of them is represented by a question, with several possible answers. In other words,

respondents are asked to choose the option, that describes their state the most. The main variable from socio-demographic aspects is gender represented by dummy variable *female*, included as a dummy variable for women (the variable equals one if the respondent is a woman, and zero otherwise). The level of significance of this variable is expected to be high as this study hypothesises existing gender differences in job satisfaction.

Another explanatory variable is age, which is the only variable with open-answer form. Respondents are asked to state their birth year and this information is transformed into their current age by the time the survey was conducted (*age*). Apart from that, the quadratic form of this variable (*age2*) was added to capture the possible quadratic relationship. In case it is non-linear, the coefficient is statistically significant and we can find out, whether the function is concave or convex and see the stationary points. According to Bucheli (2010), age emerges as a strong determinant of job satisfaction and it shows a non-linear relationship given the significance of this variable. Furthermore, Singh (2013) in her study discovered the relationship is U-shaped (convex). This result implied that older people are much more likely to have more realistic expectations about their jobs and a stronger sense of achievement. Moreover, Bucheli (2010) states that older workers have, on average, more seniority and have more advanced positions within their employing organization. Also, people presumably try out different jobs and tend to select into more suitable positions over time. The variable of age can be related to other factors such as a fear of losing work (described below). The question would be whether it is easier to find a new one in higher age when workers already have certain skills and experience or for graduates, who can offer the knowledge of modern methods and represent the potential for long-term prospective labour force.

There is also a factor of education included in the data. Respondents could choose their highest completed education level from the range of eleven options, transformed into 2 dummy variables for our purposes: *edsec* (secondary education), including ISCED codes 3-4, and *edter* (tertiary education), including ISCED codes 5-6, (primary education – ISCED code 1 – being the reference group). It might be possible that more educated people tend to have higher expectations regarding to their career. Thus, that might result in lower level of their job satisfaction. Bucheli (2010) discovered that the growth rate of job satisfaction falls as the educational level is up. Specifically, she found that higher educational levels may induce people to be less satisfied at work which in turn may stem from the interplay between reality and expectations (better

salary or working conditions).

I also included a variable of marital status. The possible answers are fleshed out to options of married, married but separated, registered partnership, divorced, single and widowed. There is expected difference in job satisfaction due to the obligation of financial securing someone and thus working in an unsatisfying job with the priority of getting sufficient salary. In contrast to that, single individual usually only spends money on his/her personal use so does not necessarily desire to prefer highly paid unsatisfying job to interesting work with sufficient wage. Therefore, a dummy variable for those living without a partner (*separated*, *divorced*, *single*, and *widowed*) was constructed, with individuals living in a marriage and registered partnership being the reference group.

One more variable regarding family status was included. The survey includes question asking on how many people live in respondent's household, which is extended by another one asking how many people are over the age of 18, how many are between 7 and 17 years old and how many of them are 6 or younger. The numbers stated in the last two sub-questions were added up and created the variable *children*, which is equal to number of kids sharing one household with the worker.

Another relevant variable is the above-mentioned *income*. Respondents chose one of thirteen salary categories. It is important to remind, that the impact of income level on job satisfaction is very subjective. People have different needs, standards and expectations so it is highly possible, that, for example, a worker with relatively low income will be very satisfied with his job because it exceeded his expectations and the wage is generally above average for the work he does. In contrary, another worker with significantly higher income can be though unsatisfied, because his job is very hard and his expectation did not meet the reality. Thus, we should only use the variable of income to interpret the extent of impact of increase or decrease in wage on job satisfaction. However, similar included variable in the model is individual's perception of his/her income. Specifically, the respondents were asked to state how much they agree or disagree with the statement: *My income is high*. This question is though described below.

Next included explanatory variable is a fear of losing job. Respondents were asked to choose to what extent they worry about the possibility of losing their job from options of worrying a great deal, worrying to some extent, worrying a little and not worrying at all. Kingshan Zheng (2014) in his study found that

job satisfaction is bolstered when job security increases among those who report a high level of both optimism and person-supervisor deep-level similarity. This variable can be found as a *lossfear* and is equal to one in case of the answers ‘worrying a great deal’ and ‘worrying to some extent’ and to zero otherwise. Regarding to the other group of work aspects, there are two sets of questions asking individuals on similar factors. One of them asks specifically on the level of importance an individual assigns to certain job characteristic and the second one wants respondents to show how much they agree or disagree with diverse statements. The questions from the first set were answered by choosing from Very important (1), Important (2), Neither important nor unimportant (3), Not important (4), or Not important at all (5). The statements in the second set of questions represent always the most satisfactory possible variant (i.e. *My job is secure.*, *My income is high.*, *My opportunities for advancement are high.*, *My job is interesting.*, *I can work independently.*) and the possible options are Strongly agree (1), Agree (2), Neither agree nor disagree (3), Disagree (4) and Strongly disagree (5). From these two sets, five aspects, that were covered by both of them, were transformed into dummy variables.

Based on the above mentioned first set of questions, five dummy variables were created (*secure*, *highincome*, *advance*, *interest*, *indep*). All of them have value of 1 in case of respondent considering the factor as very important or important and value of 0 otherwise. Even though the variable of job security (*secure*) might seem very similar to variable *lossfear* described above and the values of both of them should not differ much, I now use the *secure* as an explanatory variable assigning the relationship between only the importance of job security and overall job satisfaction.

Apart from the described group of dummy variables, I also included a group of those representing the comparison of the two above mentioned sets of questions. In other words, the difference between the importance of certain job aspect and the reality how the worker perceives it. Each of them was generated by subtracting the reality perception from the importance of the aspect. The newly created variables are supposed to represent the satisfaction with the specific job characteristic. Specifically, with job security (*satsecure*), high income (*satincome*), opportunities for advancement (*satadvance*), interest in the job (*satinterest*) and finally, the allowance to work independently (*satindep*). The minimum value of these variables is -4 and the maximum reaches up to 4. The minimum is reached in case of apparently highly unsatisfied worker, who, for example, considers highly important to have high income (rating 1),

but strongly disagree with his/her own income being high (rating 5). The satisfactory state occurs when the value of these derived variables is equal to 0. That means, the level of importance of certain characteristic corresponds to the extent to which a respondent agrees with the ideal level of that characteristic being fulfilled. In reality, it could mean, that, for instance, an employee does not consider opportunities for advancement as an important factor and also states, that his/her actual job does not offer them. Therefore, even though there is no chance to promote within his job, he is quite satisfied because he doesn't give this working aspect a big value. There might also be workers, for whom is very important to have, for instance, secure job and they are lucky enough to strongly agree with their job being secure. These employees are supposed to be on the same level of satisfaction with this aspect as the previously mentioned worker with the interestingness of his/her work.

The positive sign of value of derived variables can be observed in cases, where the reality perception exceeds the level of importance of certain job characteristic. To provide an example, a respondent stating very low level of importance when it comes to an interestingness of work has a job, that he/she considers as highly interesting. In this case, the sign of the value of this variable is positive and probably very high as this worker is probably very satisfied with this aspect of his work.

Highly important aspect of work are relations at the workplace. The respondents were asked to choose an option best describing the relations among workmates/colleagues and between management and employees. It could be very good (1), quite good (2), neither good nor bad (3), quite bad (4) or very bad (5). The average value of the two variables (relation among workmates and relation between management and employees) was used to create two dummy ones. *Greatrelations* is equal to 1 in case of the average relations with both colleagues and management were stated as very good and *badrelations* has value of 1 in case of the overall average is equal to 3.5 or higher, in other cases the variables have value of zero. Therefore, we are able to observe how big impact on overall job satisfaction the extremely good atmosphere at the workplace have and, on the contrary, how significantly that can be affected by bad relations. The study of Peterson (2004) showed that this aspect is valued more by women than by men and is one of the key explanatory variables when it comes to their job satisfaction together with teams and collaboration (described below) recognition and respect, communication, fairness and equity (not available in our data).

On the contrary, an aspect showed as valued more by men than women is the worker having subordinates (*Do/ did you supervise any employees in your current (last) main job?, How many employees do/ did you supervise?*), which is represented by dummy variable *subordinates*. Peterson (2004) also revealed that men mostly desire power, authority, and status, which can be satisfied by career growth and responsibility (described below).

Another potentially significant variables are the job characteristics regarding hard physical work and stressful work. Respondents answered one of five options including frequency of their job being physically hard or stressful, specifically always, often, sometimes, hardly ever, never. There is quite clear idea of the expected impact of such variables on one's job satisfaction. Both of these aspects were modified into dummy variables *hardwork* and *stressfulwork* having the value of 1 in case the answer 'always' or 'often' was selected.

Similar effect can be assumed regarding questions on working hours. A Study of Bloom (2013) showed, that employees working from home are both more satisfied and more productive. There is a variable of frequency of working from home and frequency of working during weekends. There might also be an effect of individual's freedom in setting working hours on the explained variable. The answer options are same as in previous questions, ranging from always to never. These job characteristics are coded as dummy variables *homework* and *weekendwork* and as in the previous case, the value of 1 is reached if the answer is either 'always' or 'often', zero otherwise.

The question Q15 asks respondents to choose one of the options of statements best describing how their working hours are decided. The options are following: I cannot change (fixed time), I can decide with certain limits, I am entirely free to decide. Here I created another dummy variable named *timefreedom*, which gets the value of 1 in case of entire freedom or at least a possibility to determine the work time with certain limits, zero otherwise.

The next question exposes an information on specific working schedule in respondents' main job. Individuals state whether their shift or schedule is regular, regularly changing, or decided at short notice by their employer. Here we cannot really predict the relation of these answers to the overall job satisfaction as the preferences are subjective and might differ across population. The corresponding variable *regulartime* was created and is equal to one if the shift time does not change at all or there is a regularity in change of working hours.

Next two questions are very specific, but including them as explanatory variables to the model could give us an idea of the weight attached to these aspects

by workers. The first one regards independence in daily organization of the work and asks whether individual is free to decide, decides within certain limits, or is not free to decide. Therefore, a dummy variable *orgfreedom* was created and is represented only by those, who are completely free to decide. Some workers prefer independence and using own creativity, for others the given daily organization means less effort devoted to the actual realization of the tasks as the procedure is already given.

The second one asks specifically how difficult it would be to take an hour or two off during working hours, to take care of personal or family matters. People can choose from not difficult at all, not too difficult, somewhat difficult, or very difficult. This aspect is supposed to have an impact on the job satisfaction as even though people usually do not use the benefits such as the ability to take some time off if necessary, the awareness of the possibility to do so without any troubles makes them appreciate the job. This variable is coded as *houroff* and its value is equal to 1 in case of answers 'not difficult at all' and 'not too difficult', zero otherwise.

# Chapter 4

## Methodology

As it was already mentioned, the dependent variable is job satisfaction. A main issue of the data is the fact, that this variable is limited, i.e. its range of values is substantially restricted. These kinds of variables need special treatment, because we want to predict fitted values that are within the range and also properties of the disturbance term are different. Moreover, our dependent variable can be called Count dependent variable as it takes only on non-negative integer values 1-7. For this kind of variables, an exponential function  $E(y | x) = \exp\beta$  is used to model the expected value, which assures positive values for  $E(y | x)$ . To obtain the demanded results, a censored regression model is used. Generally, censored regression model can be defined without distributional assumptions. Generally, logit model is more popular in health sciences partly because coefficients can be interpreted in terms of odds ratios. Probit models can be generalized to account for non-constant error variances in more advanced econometric settings and hence are used in some contexts by economists and political scientists. Therefore, I will use the ordered probit model for comparison with standard OLS regression. The same methodology can usually be seen in literature focused on well-being Galdeano (2000). The results of our regressions are stated in Chapter 5, Tables 5.12, 5.13 and 5.14, the marginal effects of ordered probit regression are shown in Tables A.1, A.2, A.3, A.4.

## 4.1 Model 1 - Simple regression

According to the hypothesis, that gender paradox is present, a simple model will be construed to run a regression. The only explanatory variable in this case is female, i.e. gender, as described by the following equation:

$$jobsatisfaction_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 female_i + u_i, \quad (4.1)$$

where *jobsatisfaction* is explained variable representing the job satisfaction of worker, *female* is dummy variable for gender,  $\beta_0$  and  $\beta_1$  are constant parameters and  $u$  is an error term. In case of female workers being generally more satisfied with their job, the coefficient of this variable would be significant and a positive relationship between job satisfaction and the female variable would prove the gender paradox.

## 4.2 Model 2 - Overall multiple regression

The second regression I will run is overall model for all employees containing all the variables described above. In case of presence of the gender paradox, the statistical significance of the variable *female* is expected to considerably decrease as the aspects of work are added. In other words, if it is true, that women value different aspects of work more than men and *vice versa*, the significance is supposed to move to the other explanatory variables. Conversely, the significance of this variable is expected to increase in Model 2 in case of absence of the gender paradox, which is also predicted according to the modified hypothesis.

The form of this model is described by following equation:

$$\begin{aligned}
 jobsatisfaction_i = & \beta_0 + \beta_1 female_i + \beta_2 age_i + \beta_3 age2_i \\
 & + \beta_4 edsec_i + \beta_5 edter_i + \beta_6 separated_i + \beta_7 divorced_i \\
 & + \beta_8 single_i + \beta_9 widowed_i + \beta_{10} children_i + \beta_{11} income_i \\
 & + \beta_{12} lossfear_i + \beta_{13} secure_i + \beta_{14} highincome_i \\
 & + \beta_{15} advance_i + \beta_{16} interest_i + \beta_{17} indep_i + \beta_{18} satsecure_i \\
 & + \beta_{19} satincome_i + \beta_{20} satadvance_i + \beta_{21} satinterest_i \\
 & + \beta_{22} satindep_i + \beta_{23} greatrelations_i + \beta_{24} badrelations_i \\
 & + \beta_{25} subordinates_i + \beta_{26} hardwork_i + \beta_{27} stressfulwork_i \\
 & + \beta_{28} homework_i + \beta_{29} weekendwork_i + \beta_{30} timefreedom_i \\
 & + \beta_{31} regulartime_i + \beta_{32} orgfreedom_i + \beta_{33} hourof f_i + u_i,
 \end{aligned} \tag{4.2}$$

where *jobsatisfaction* is explained variable representing the job satisfaction of worker,  $\beta_1$  to  $\beta_{33}$  are the regression coefficients corresponding the explanatory variables as described in Chapter 3 and  $u$  is an error term.

### 4.3 Model 3 - Gender multiple regressions

Regardless the main hypothesis of the existence of gender paradox will be confirmed or not, the final analysis is devoted to gender specific impacts of various job aspects on job satisfaction. If the hypothesis is valid, meaning that  $\beta_1$  is significant and positive in Model 1 and insignificant in Model 2, we are interested in identifying the aspects responsible for gender differences in job satisfaction. (Similarly, if the modified hypothesis is valid.) Otherwise, even if the gender differences in impacts of various job aspects on job satisfaction are not sufficiently strong to prove our hypotheses, differences in at least some job aspects may prevail. Thus the regression Model 3 is based on Equation 4.2, the only difference being dropping the term  $\beta_1 female$ .

# Chapter 5

## Results

### 5.1 Czech labor market overview

The survey includes questions on individuals' perceptions of Czech labor market as well as their own experience. These questions were divided into two groups and analyzed separately. First group covers the topic of Czech labor market. The second one focuses more on respondents and their individual preferences and experience. In order to provide insight to each topic, the tables with distribution of answers were created. They reveal information on answers of men, women and total sample of respondents respectively.

#### 5.1.1 Gender (in)equality perceptions in the Czech labour market and discrimination

According to the results of analysis of our overall sample, there are significant disadvantages for female workers present in the labour market in Czech Republic, that people are generally aware of. Table 5.1 indicates that 74% of all women hold the stand that there are changes to be done to equalize women's position in labour market, whereas 58% of all men agreed on the same. 72% of men claim that it is easier to get a job in a leading position in a big company for men. Female respondents support this statement by even 84% (see Table 5.2). Regarding to these positions in civil services or non-profit companies (see Table 5.3), nearly 32% of women and 42% of men believe there are equal opportunities for both genders. However, 61% of women are still convinced, that it is easier for men to find a job in such areas, which is supported by 46% of male respondents. The difference in perceptions on these two work places

can be seen. Many respondent believe it is more hard for women to get on in big companies with strong competition, whereas non-profit companies and civil services might even contain places more suitable for female workers, than for male ones.

Table 5.1: The needed steps towards gender equality in Czech Republic.

	Male	Female	Total
...has already been done	42%	26%	33%
...have to be done	58%	74%	67%
Total	100%	100%	100%
Respondents	529	762	1291

Source: ISSP 2015. Author's computations. Sample of all individuals

Table 5.2: Who has easier access to get a leading position in a big company?

	Male	Female	Total
Men	72%	84%	79%
Women	2%	1%	1%
There is no difference	26%	15%	20%
Total	100%	100%	100%
Respondents	583	793	1376

Source: ISSP 2015. Author's computations. Sample of all individuals

Table 5.3: Who has easier access to get a leading position in a civil services or non-profit companies?

	Male	Female	Total
Men	46%	61%	55%
Women	12%	8%	9%
There is no difference	42%	32%	36%
Total	100%	100%	100%
Respondents	562	758	1320

Source: ISSP 2015. Author's computations. Sample of all individuals

Asking only working individuals about the actual situation in their current job, 5% of men stated that female workers have bigger opportunities to get into the leading positions and almost 49% of them work in companies where the chances of getting it are equal for both genders (see Table 5.4). It is important to mention that question B9 considers the opportunities in a big company whereas the question B13 asks generally all employees regardless the size of company they work at. Surprisingly even more, 9% of women from the working population stated greater working opportunities for female employee and

slightly more than 49% admitted balanced situation. This could indicate, that women tend to have jobs, that are more open to female workers and thus giving them higher chances of having a leading position, than they would have if they worked in companies where for example mostly men are employed. Even though the labour market is nowadays very balanced for both genders, there are still positions, that are most often occupied by one sex. This can be alternatively explained as a cause of a better fit in skills of workers of certain gender. For example, technical and analytical education is mostly attracted by men, whereas social works, or humanistic specialization are often chosen by women. Therefore, we can find mostly women working in social services and mostly men working in engineering or machine operating. Nevertheless, almost 44% of the whole group of employed respondents agreed that men still have significant advantage while applying for such job.

Table 5.4: In your current employment, how is it with the opportunities to get a leading position?

	Male	Female	Total
Men have higher opportunities	46%	42%	44%
Women have higher opportunities	5%	9%	7%
Both have the same opportunities	49%	49%	49%
Total	100%	100%	100%
Respondents	388	481	869

Source: ISSP 2015. Author's computations. Sub-sample of employees.

Tables 5.5 and 5.6 are related to the perceptions of gender income inequality. The general point of view in Czech Republic stands by 85% for conviction about the rule, that men receive higher financial rewards than women for the same work done (see Table 5.5). Specifically, this holds for 89% of female and 79% of male respondents. Not even 1% of the whole sample believes in the opposite. Surprisingly, when providing information on condition in current employment (see Table 5.6), only 50% of all employees, 52% of women and 47% of men, stated that the mentioned gender wage gap was present.

Table 5.5: Who do you think always have higher income in Czech Republic?

	Male	Female	Total
Men	79%	89%	85%
Women	1%	0%	1%
There is no difference	20%	11%	14%
Total	100%	100%	100%
Respondents	581	796	1377

*Source:* ISSP 2015. Author's computations. Sample of all individuals.

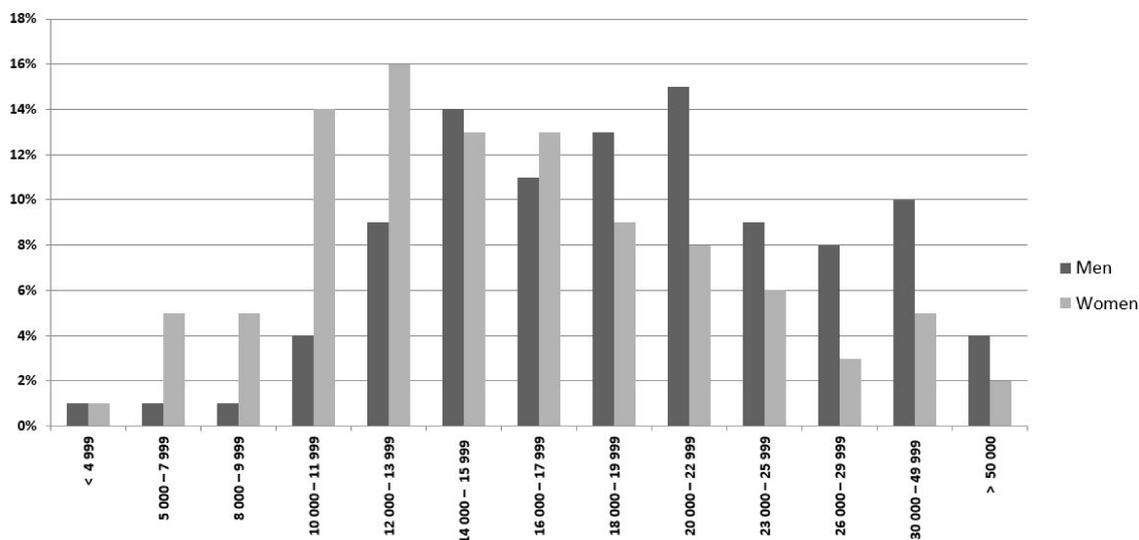
Table 5.6: In your current employment, how is it with incomes?

	Male	Female	Total
Men have higher income	47%	52%	50%
Women have higher income	2%	1%	1%
There is no difference	51%	47%	49%
Total	100%	100%	100%
Respondents	368	493	861

*Source:* ISSP 2015. Author's computations. Sub-sample of employees.

Analyzing the respective incomes of individuals from our sample, significant differences in gross monthly wages of female and male workers can be observed. As showed in Figure 5.1, women prevails in the categories with lower income and gender distribution gradually changes as the income increases. The Figure shows the percentage of all women fall into certain income category as well as percent of all men. The average monthly income of female worker in our sample is around CZK 16 000, while the average income of male employee is between CZK 18 000 and CZK 20 000. Though, the information on actual income of the population of Czech Republic in the last quarter of 2018 according to Czech Statistical Office is quite different. The median wage was CZK 29 247. The male median wage reached CZK 31 910 and the female one was CZK 26 490. Eighty per cent of employees earned wages within the interval from CZK 14 475 to CZK 54 320 (CzechStatisticalOffice 2019).

Figure 5.1: Wage distribution in the Czech Republic (CZK)



*Source:* ISSP 2015. Sub-sample of employees.

To sum up the income overview, the results of respondents' expectations are not very surprising as many people worldwide are nowadays aware of existing gender inequality and/or discrimination in the labour market. Yet the women's position in the labor market and their career opportunities in Czechia is not perceived as advanced and equal to men. Men are overall more convinced about the gender equality than women, who believe there is still a long way towards the ideal fair conditions.

Gender inequality as any other inequality can be interwoven with discrimination. In order to shed more light on the gender discrimination in Czech labour market, we present the experiences of respondents. In general, 18% of all respondents in our sample set stated they were discriminated in their job during last five years, as we can see in table 5.7. Specifically, 15% of men and 20% of all women. Even though the biggest share, 41% of all cases of discrimination, were subject to their age, 16% were subject to their sex and, what is also interesting, 25% of discriminated persons were treated such way because of their family responsibilities (see Table 5.8). Taking a close look at the share of male and female workers in these cases, it can be observed that nearly 5% of disadvantaged men and 20% of discriminated women were sex discriminated. Similar results can be observed regarding those discriminated for their family responsibilities: 30% of women experienced such discrimination, whereas only 11% of discriminated men went through the same. Even the results regarding

age discrimination show a slight prevalence of females facing it in 37% of cases. Men were age discriminated in 51% of all male discrimination cases.

Table 5.7: Over the past five years, have you been discriminated against with regard to work?

	Male	Female	Total
Yes	15%	20%	18%
No	85%	80%	82%
Total	100%	100%	100%
Respondents	563	754	1317

Source: ISSP 2015. Author's computations. Sample of all individuals.

Table 5.8: In your opinion, what was the main reason for the discrimination?

	Male	Female	Total
My age	51%	37%	41%
My sex	5%	20%	16%
My family responsibilities	11%	30%	25%
Other	33%	13%	18%
Total	100%	100%	100%
Respondents	37	106	143

Source: ISSP 2015. Author's computations. Sub-sample of discriminated individuals.

### 5.1.2 Work life balance

It is a common fact, that there are differences among working standards over the nations. Apart from working hours and wages, there is a diversity in perception of work. Many individuals enjoy their occupation and the income is only an aspect of the work, that makes it even more satisfying. However, significant share of workers takes their job just as a way to make money with no value added.

Analyzing the Czech sample, as it can be found in Table 5.9, 48% of all workers stated that "a job is just a way of earning money - no more". Specifically, 48% of women and 50% of men. Only 33% of all employees, 31% of all men and 34% of all women, did not agree with this statement. According to this result, we cannot see any substantial difference in perception of work between genders.

Regarding the family life, the respondents were asked, whether they have ever given up or would give up good job opportunities for the benefit of their family life. The results are shown in Table 5.10. 37% of people have already done so, out of which 78% would do so again, while only 22% of them would not repeat

Table 5.9: A job is just a way of earning money - no more.

	Male	Female	Total
Agree	50%	48%	48%
Neither agree nor disagree	19%	18%	19%
Disagree	31%	34%	33%
Total	100%	100%	100%
Respondents	605	812	1417

*Source:* ISSP 2015. Author's computations. Sample of all individuals.

this decision. 63% of our sample has not done so, but 71% of these stated they would do so. Overall 18% of the whole population neither have done so nor would do so. According to usual stereotypes, we would assume women to be more willing to give up their career in subject to family life than men. The data confirm, that 41% of women have already done that, and 80% of these would do so again. 30% of men have done so as well and 77% of them would do it again. One quarter of female representatives who have never done so would not do so either way. This share of males who have never done so comprises 33%.

Table 5.10: Giving up good job opportunities for the benefit of the family life.

	Male	Female	Total
Have done so and would do so again	23%	33%	29%
Have done so but would not do so again	7%	8%	8%
Have not done so but would do so	47%	44%	45%
Have not done so and would not do so	23%	15%	18%
Total	100%	100%	100%
Respondents	589	783	1372

*Source:* ISSP 2015. Author's computations. Sample of all individuals.

This topic leads to another question, whether respondents ever remained or would remain in a job that was not satisfying for their for the benefit of their family life. Overall, 35% of all people have already done so and 63% of these would repeat their decision (see Table 5.11). Though 65% of respondents have not done so, 65% of these would be probably willing to do so. Yet, 23% of all people would not be able to work in a job that would not be satisfying for them only for the benefit of their family life even though they have never even done that. Focusing on the gender differences, 38% of women and 32% of men have

ever done that, of which 61% of women and 66% of men would do so again. On the other hand, out of those who have not done so 62% of men and 67% of women would probably do so.

Table 5.11: Remaining in a job that is not satisfying for the benefit of the family life.

	Male	Female	Total
Have done so and would do so again	21%	23%	22%
Have done so but would not do so again	11%	15%	13%
Have not done so but would do so	42%	41%	42%
Have not done so and would not do so	26%	20%	23%
Total	100%	100%	100%
Respondents	584	783	1367

*Source:* ISSP 2015. Author's computations. Sample of all individuals.

## 5.2 Gender impact on job satisfaction

Firstly, the standard OLS regression was run according to Equation 4.1 and a statistical significance of the  $\beta_1$  coefficient was tested (see Table 5.12). Due to the calculated t-value being higher than corresponding t-statistic, we do not have enough evidence to reject  $H_0$ , that this variable is insignificant. Though, the R-squared of this model is only 0.0021, which is reasonable with only one statistically insignificant explanatory variable with very low value of its coefficient. The results show that the coefficient of  $\beta_1$  is negative, which means, that women tend to be less satisfied in their job than men. However, even though many studies on scale measured well-being use Ordinal least squares regression, it is more convenient to run the ordered probit model, which enables us to interpret our results more specifically.

Obtaining results of marginal effects for all the outcomes respectively, we can see, that women employees are about 2% less likely to be completely satisfied and about 1% less likely to be very satisfied with their job than men (see Table A.1). On the contrary, they are 1% more likely to be fairly satisfied, 2% more likely to be neither satisfied, nor dissatisfied and nearly 1% more likely to be fairly dissatisfied. The other outcomes do not really vary for men and women. Generally, as none of the marginal effects is statistically significant, we can say there are no dramatic differences in job satisfaction between genders and there is no impact of sex on our explained variable. We can conclude that gender paradox is not present on the Czech labour market, and we can reflect our main hypothesis. In the next sub-chapter, we are going to verify our modified hypothesis, according to which the female coefficient would gain statistical significance and negative sign after controlling for other explanatory variables.

Table 5.12: Model 1 - Gender impact on job satisfaction

jobsatisfaction —	Ordered probit		OLS	
	Coef.	Std. Err.	Coef.	Std. Err.
female —	-0.0998	0.1004	-0.1071	0.1105
/cut1 —	-2.3362	0.1791	5.2560	0.0806
/cut2 —	-1.9803	0.1358		
/cut3 —	-1.6210	0.1110		
/cut4 —	-0.8990	0.0873		
/cut5 —	0.3376	0.0806		
/cut6 —	0.9973	0.0899		
LR $Chi^2/F_{stat}$	0.99		0.94	
Pseudo $R^2$ ( $R^2$ )	0.0008		-0.0001 (0.0021)	

Source: ISSP 2015. Author's computations. Sub-sample of employees (442 observations).

### 5.3 Determinants of job satisfaction

Running OLS regression with all the 32 explanatory variables (Equation 4.2), the R-squared increased to 0.446, which means this model explains 45% of the total variation in job satisfaction. Even though the number of predictors is such high, the adjusted R-squared is equal to 0.358, which is a satisfactory result. Conducting the F-test of overall significance of this model, we reject the null hypothesis with extremely high confidence - less than 1% and thus we can be sure that the data can provide us with reasonable information. Generally, comparing the results of OLS regression and Ordered probit regression, the results do not vary so even though the ordered probit regression is more suitable for our dependent variable, we can interpret coefficients obtained in both cases.

The variable of gender (*female*) remains insignificant in both OLS and ordered probit estimates and moreover, the sign of its coefficient is now positive (see Table 5.13). Thus we can reject the modified hypothesis.

Given the large number of explanatory variables, we focus our interpretation on those statistically significant at at least 10% significance level only. With some exceptions, the OLS and ordered probit regressions uniformly identify significant variables (see Table 5.13). In order to quantify the magnitude of the significant effects, we apply marginal effects obtained from the ordered probit regression (see Table A.2).

Starting with socio-demographic aspects, none of them seem to either have any high level of significance or big effect on job satisfaction. However, we can now tell, that with increasing age, the job satisfaction decreases until certain point and then starts increasing again, though without statistical significance. That corresponds with the U-shaped theory mentioned in Chapter 4. Neither education, marital status nor children affect the explanatory variable to a large extent.

Job aspects with levels of significance at least at the 10% level are the opportunity for advancement, interesting job and independence at work. All of these have positive effect on job satisfaction. Specifically, workers who have the opportunity for advancement are 3% more likely to be completely satisfied in their job and about 5% more likely to be very satisfied (see Table A.2). Those, who have interesting job, are about 7% more likely to be completely satisfied and even 16% more likely to be very satisfied. And those who can work independently, are about 3% more likely to be completely satisfied and 5% more likely to be very satisfied.

In terms of variables *satsecure*, *satincome*, *satadvance*, *satinterest*, *satindep*, the signs of all coefficients are positive. Moreover, the worker's satisfaction with income, interesting work and independence are statistically significant. As it was assumed, when people value certain aspect as very important but they only receive a lack of it, their satisfaction is lower, than satisfaction of others, who work under conditions that correspond with the level of importance. With increase of the value of satisfaction with certain aspect, the employees are generally more likely to be either completely satisfied, or very satisfied with their job and less likely to be fairly or less satisfied with their job.

Not only a high level of significance, but also a large magnitude can be observed regarding the relations at workplace. It is natural that the overall impression is affected by relations with others, especially regarding jobs requiring work in teams or constant contact with other workers. In our sample apparently both outstanding cases - great relations and bad relations significantly influence the happiness of worker in job. The effect was expected and the employees with bad relations at work are 19% more likely to be neither satisfied, nor dissatisfied, 4% more likely to be fairly dissatisfied and about 2% more likely to be very dissatisfied in their job. Those with outstandingly great relations are 15% more likely to be completely satisfied and 14% more likely to be very satisfied (see Table A.2).

Quite surprisingly, number of subordinates was also found to have a significant impact on job satisfaction. The fact, that an employee has subordinate(s) has positive effect on job satisfaction. Assumed high level of significance have also both hard and stressful work. These two variables affect the overall job satisfaction negatively, as expected above.

The results show rather an unexpected effect of frequency of working on weekends. Surprisingly, working on weekends shows significant and positive effect on job satisfaction. Specifically, those working on weekends are more than 4% more likely to be completely satisfied and also about 5% more likely to be very satisfied in work. This variable is also one of the most significant ones. One of possible explanations might be the fact, that people, who work on weekends are workers in entertainment field, i.e. they work on festivals, concerts, social events etc. Even though these kinds of events usually are during weekends, the job might be very interactive, non-monotonous and quite creative. Also, it is expected, that people can only do these jobs if they are enthusiastic about it. Similar positive effect also has the awareness of the possibility to take an hour or two off to take care of personal or family matters. Such result is quite self-explanatory as majority of workers naturally prefer non-stressful environment and also the awareness of the fact that they are enabled to take some time off if necessary.

Surprisingly significant is the variable regarding the regularity of working hours, which was revealed to have negative effect on the explained variable. Workers, whose shift time does not change at all, or changes regularly are about 5% more likely to be 'just' fairly satisfied and 4% more likely to state they are neither satisfied nor dissatisfied with their job (see Table A.2).

Table 5.13: Model 2 - Determinants of job satisfaction

jobsatisfaction —	Ordered Probit		OLS	
	Coef.	Std. Err.	Coef.	Std. Err.
female —	0.1301	0.1199	0.0932	0.0971
age —	-0.0245	0.0369	-0.0117	0.0301
age2 —	0.0003	0.0004	0.0002	0.0003
edsec —	-0.1619	0.1352	-0.1302	0.1098
edter —	-0.0457	0.1958	-0.0181	0.1578
separated —	0.0230	0.6425	-0.1532	0.5403
divorced —	0.0793	0.1483	0.0445	0.1210
single —	-0.1499	0.1581	-0.13584	0.1288
widowed —	0.1119	0.3116	0.0207	0.2503
children —	0.0010	0.0060	0.0007	0.0046
income —	0.0096	0.0254	0.0008	0.0206
lossfear —	-0.0199	0.1190	0.0145	0.0963
secure —	0.2108	0.2801	0.1429	0.2297
highincome —	0.1721	0.1631	0.1351	0.1336
advance —	0.2541*	0.1434	0.1830	0.1160
interest —	0.9774***	0.2090	0.7450***	0.1681
indep —	0.2550*	0.1393	0.1842	0.1128
satsecure —	0.0396	0.0555	0.0325	0.0454
satincome —	0.1261*	0.0667	0.0960*	0.0542
satadvance —	0.0635	0.0612	0.0368	0.0500
satinterest —	0.5090***	0.0654	0.3977***	0.0506
satindep —	0.2006***	0.0576	0.1464***	0.0469
greatrelations —	0.7736***	0.1640	0.5427***	0.1292
badrelations —	-0.8942***	0.2337	-0.8970***	0.1898
subordinates —	0.2400*	0.1425	0.1836	0.1149
hardwork —	0.0723	0.1343	0.0559	0.1093
stressfulwork —	-0.3810***	0.1230	-0.2726***	0.0996
homework —	-0.0594	0.2597	-0.0288	0.2109
weekendwork —	0.2485**	0.1269	0.1863*	0.1031
timefreedom —	0.3685	0.2841	0.2891	0.2299
regulartime —	-0.2888*	0.1559	-0.2180*	0.1258
orgfreedom —	0.2238	0.1666	0.1730	0.1342
houroff —	0.2450**	0.1178	0.1775*	0.0955
/cut1 —	- 2.3969	0.9009	4.4199	0.7150
/cut2 —	-1.9061	0.8901		
/cut3 —	-1.3931	0.8857		
/cut4 —	-0.3050	0.8825		
/cut5 —	1.5097	0.8840		
/cut6 —	2.3944	0.8866		
LR $Chi^2/F_{stat}$	145.27		10.04	
Pseudo $R^2 (R^2)$	0.2085		0.3581 (0.4459)	

Source: ISSP 2015. Author's computations. Sub-sample of employees (442 observations).

Note: \*/ \*\*/ \*\*\* Significant at the 10%/5%/1% level, respectively.

## 5.4 Gender differences in determinants of job satisfaction

Looking at the results of the individual regressions for female and male employees based on the Model 3, certain job aspect are perceived quite differently. The signs of coefficients vary, for example, for age, education, marital status and children (see Table 5.14). These variables, however, were shown to be statistically insignificant. Surprisingly, another insignificant variables for both genders is the variable represented by the statement that given individual has high income. According to literature background in Chapter 2, a high level of significance was expected to be revealed for male sample.

Age is statistically significant for men only, and only in the ordered probit regression. It can be seen that the job satisfaction of men decreases first and than increases with age (corresponds to the U-shape theory). While both secondary and tertiary education increase the level of job satisfaction of women, they has negative impact on job satisfaction of men. Moreover, the variable *edsec* was revealed as highly significant for male respondents only.

As it was expected, relations at workplace have much greater effect on job satisfaction of women. Both variables *greatrelations* and *badrelations* are significant at lower than 1% level for women. Regarding men sample, only the *badrelations* variable is significant at 1% level. The variable *greatrelations* is though insignificant for men. Female workers with great relations are 23% more likely to be completely satisfied and about 16% more likely to be very satisfied in their job than those without them. Men having great relations at work are 4% more likely to be completely satisfied and 8% more likely to be very satisfied than those, who don't have great relations at their work place.

Another interesting difference in our sample can be observed when it comes to independence at work. While this variable is significant at 6% level for women in the ordered probit regression and it does not show any significance for men. Female employees tent to be satisfied with certain amount of independence. This result might be caused by women, who prefer creative job demanding their own contribution and creativity, whereas men do not care if being told what exactly they are expected to do.

The opposite difference is observed when looking at statistical significance of coefficients related to the opportunities for advancement. This coefficient is significant at 3% level for male workers whereas for female it is insignificant. Men

with such opportunities are 4% more likely to be completely satisfied and 11% more likely to be very satisfied with their job, than those without opportunities for career grow (see Table A.3). This result was assumed as it corresponds with many theories focusing on gender job satisfaction.

Having subordinates have positive effect on job satisfaction for both genders but again, there is difference in significance. The assumption of men desiring authority was supported by this result as the mentioned variable is significant at 3% level for males and insignificant for females. Male workers with subordinate(s) are about 6% more likely to be completely satisfied and 11% more likely to be very satisfied, than those, without subordinate(s) (see Table A.3). Such effect is smaller for female workers.

The gender difference is shown when it comes to work from home. Surprisingly, men are generally more satisfied when having such opportunity whereas the effect of this variable on job satisfaction of women is negative. Even though this variable does not have sufficient level of significance, the marginal effects are considerable. Specifically, men are 6% more likely to be completely satisfied and 11% more likely to be very satisfied in their job when they get the chance to work from home. On the contrary, women working from home are 5% less likely to be completely satisfied, 9% less likely to be very satisfied, than those who do not have home office. More over, those with home office are 10% more likely to be neither satisfied, nor dissatisfied and even 2% more likely to be fairly unsatisfied (see Table A.4).

Similar effect is discovered regarding the time freedom, i.e. whether is up to worker to choose when he/she wants to work. Male employees are 5% more likely to be completely satisfied and even 21% more likely to be very satisfied when they can decide about their working hours. Even though this variable has even less than 1% level of significance for men, it is insignificant for women who apparently do not mind having their time planned. That is supported by the fact, that female employees with certain level of freedom regarding working hours are 4% less likely to be completely satisfied and 5% less likely to be very satisfied, than those with given working hours.

Table 5.14: Model 3 - Gender differences in determinants of job satisfaction

jobsatisfaction —	Males		Females	
	Ordered probit Coef.	OLS Coef.	Ordered probit Coef.	OLS Coef.
age —	-0.0980	-0.0534	0.0001	-0.0017
age2 —	0.0013*	0.0007	0.0000	0.0001
edsec —	-0.5888***	-0.4079***	0.1179	0.0598
edter —	-0.3330	-0.2482	0.1820	0.1574
separated —	-1.7547*	-1.7137	0.9175	0.6545
divorced —	0.0130	0.0034	0.0963	0.0234
single —	0.0676	0.0858	-0.1251	-0.1872
widowed —	0.1917	0.0116	0.1512	0.0396
children —	0.1518	0.1131	-0.0000	0.0003
income —	0.0698*	0.0465	-0.0091	-0.0169
lossfear —	-0.1507	-0.0676	0.0196	0.0367
secure —	0.5822	0.3245	-0.0669	-0.1285
highincome —	0.0808	0.0357	0.1449	0.1332
advance —	0.4992**	0.3038**	0.1290	0.1070
interest —	1.8440***	1.1813***	0.5605*	0.4330*
indep —	0.0358	-0.0129	0.3679*	0.3155
satsecure —	0.1379	0.0837	-0.0298	-0.0196
satincome —	0.1286	0.1015	0.0623	0.0283
satadvance —	0.1240	0.0422	0.0289	0.0446
satinterest —	0.6850***	0.4360***	0.4850***	0.3936***
satindep —	0.2580***	0.1380**	0.1956**	0.1527**
greatrelations —	0.3530	0.1998	1.0665***	0.7942***
badrelations —	-1.0306**	-0.9688***	-0.7652***	-0.7644***
subordinates —	0.4873**	0.2978*	0.1883	0.1524
hardwork —	0.1536	0.0915	0.0227	0.0224
stressfulwork —	-0.3377*	-0.1973	-0.3800**	-0.2651*
homework —	0.4902	0.2950	-0.4797	-0.3152
weekendwork —	0.4977**	0.3361**	0.2722	0.1604
timefreedom —	1.3141***	0.8567***	-0.2712	-0.1898
regulartime —	-0.4459*	-0.3035*	-0.1166	-0.0859
orgfreedom —	0.1203	0.0769	0.2745	0.2045
houroff —	0.3870**	0.2364*	0.2220	0.1450
/cut1 —	-2.5740	3.8469	-2.6561	5.0312
/cut2 —	-1.4039		-2.4282	
/cut3 —	-0.9302		-1.7999	
/cut4 —	0.4431		-0.7540	
/cut5 —	2.5859		0.9966	
/cut6 —	3.6722		1.8281	
LR $Chi^2/F_{stat}$	170.18	7.18	145.27	5.08
Pseudo $R^2$ ( $R^2$ )	0.2886	0.4898 (0.5690)	0.2080	0.3581 (0.4459)

Source: ISSP 2015. Author's computations. Sub-sample of employees (207M, 235F).

Notes: \*/ \*\*/ \*\*\* Significant at the 10%/5%/1% level, respectively.

Std. err. are not stated due to lack of space, but are available upon request.

## 5.5 International context

Apart from analyzing the Czech sample and finding out the absence of gender paradox in this country, we will analyze the position of the Czech labor market in European comparison. The list of countries and sample sizes can be found in Table 5.15 (columns: Country, Sample size). Firstly, the European overview is provided according to the number of respondents discriminated at work within last 5 years for each country respectively and the derived percentage of those discriminated based on their sex (see table 5.15, columns: Discriminated, Sex discriminated). Secondly, the job satisfaction distribution for each country is outlined, which enables us to see the Czech labor market situation in comparison with other countries (see Table 5.16).

Based on the Table 5.15, The countries with highest rate of sex discriminated women are Sweden and Norway. Both of them have also fairly high overall sex discrimination rate. Another nations, where significant sex discrimination of females occurs are Austria, Finland, France and Spain. The countries with the lowest rate of sex discriminated women are Estonia, Russia and Latvia.

The average share of women discriminated based on sex in our European sample is 20% of all cases of female discrimination. The Czech republic is thus bellow-average. Contrarily, given that the average share of males under such conditions in the same sample is 2%, the results for the Czech Republic are surprisingly above-average. However, in terms of the overall sex discrimination, the Czech Republic shows slightly under-average results as the average overall sex discrimination rate in our European sample is 12% of all discrimination cases.

According to the gaps between the share of sex discriminated female and male employees, the highest level of inequality can be found in Norway, where the difference between the shares of sex discriminated women and men makes 37%. Another countries with substantial gender discrimination gap are Austria, France, Spain and Sweden. It seems that the high rates of sex discriminated women in the above mentioned countries cannot be explained by a high level of the overall discrimination. Thus, according to computed gender sex discrimination gaps in our sample, the countries of Norway, Sweden, France, Austria and Spain deal with significant gender inequality on the labor market. The countries showing the most equal situation on the labor market are Estonia and Russia. Interesting findings in these countries, though, were revealed regarding the sex discrimination of men. Estonia and Russia together with the Czech

Republic, Norway and Belgium have the highest rate of sex discriminated male employees.

Table 5.15: European discrimination overview

Sex	Total sample			Discriminated (% of total)			Sex discriminated (% of discriminated)		
	male	female	total	male	female	total	male	female	total
Austria *	334	320	654	10	15	12	3	32	19
Croatia	280	251	531	15	22	18	0	20	11
Czech Republic	393	423	816	13	21	17	4	16	11
Denmark	359	346	710	10	20	15	0	18	11
Estonia	304	396	700	8	14	12	4	5	5
Finland *	310	330	640	10	15	12	3	25	17
France *	296	394	690	17	17	17	2	31	19
Hungary	247	317	564	3	5	4	0	12	8
Latvia	287	311	598	18	17	17	2	10	6
Lithuania	279	292	571	8	21	15	0	21	16
Norway *	542	612	1 154	9	9	9	4	38	22
Poland	455	458	913	20	23	21	0	12	6
Russia	473	419	892	10	15	12	4	6	5
Slovakia	262	339	601	11	9	10	0	19	10
Slovenia	249	238	487	14	23	19	0	18	11
Spain *	441	433	874	13	22	17	0	25	15
Sweden *	337	398	735	10	18	15	9	40	30
Switzerland	408	401	809	15	16	16	0	14	7
Belgium	586	602	1 188	15	21	18	4	24	16
Germany	548	524	1 072	20	22	21	3	12	7
Great Britain	436	487	923	10	8	9	2	13	7

*Source:* ISSP 2015. Author's computations. Sample of European individuals.

*Note:* \* Gender discrimination in more than 25% cases of all discriminated women.

The Table 5.16 outlines the job satisfaction distribution for each country. The numbers represent percentage of male and female workers selecting each answer respectively and the average job satisfaction for men, women and total sample. The categories very satisfied (6) and completely satisfied (7) were merged as well as very dissatisfied (2) and completely dissatisfied (1).

According to Table 5.16, generally most satisfied workers can be found in Austria and Switzerland. In both countries over 60% of workers stated high level of job satisfaction (6-7) and over 90% of workers are more or less satisfied with their work (5-7). One of possible explanations could be very good economic situation in mentioned countries and thus higher salaries, better working conditions and less stressful atmosphere in the workplace. Though, in case of Austria, the result is quite surprising according to Table 5.15, which revealed

high level of sex discrimination of Austrian female workers. Both countries also show quite similar distribution of job satisfaction for both male and female employees. Another country with high rate of satisfied workers are Germany and Finland.

On the other hand, the highest percentage of dissatisfied workers (1-2) can be found in countries such as Poland, France, Hungary and surprisingly even Sweden (see Table 5.16). Even though 80% of workers in Sweden are satisfied, 10% of them are more or less dissatisfied, which is the highest percentage share of dissatisfied employees out of all countries in Europe. The lowest percentage of dissatisfied workers have Austria and Estonia. The Czech Republic shows exactly average numbers regarding both satisfied and unsatisfied working sample.

Taking into account the respective job satisfaction of both genders in each country and comparing the results, an overwhelming majority of European countries have more satisfied male workers than female ones. The most unequal situation is in Hungary and Poland, where the difference between percentage of men and women, who stated they are either very satisfied or completely satisfied are 7% and 6% respectively. The state of complete equality in percentage of satisfied workers of both genders is found in Croatia, Denmark, Estonia, France, Norway, Slovak Republic and Belgium. The countries with higher percentage of satisfied female employees than male employees are Finland, Latvia, Lithuania, Spain and Great Britain. The biggest difference between percentage of satisfied men and satisfied women though is only 2% (in Finland and Great Britain). Looking at the overall results of average job satisfaction rating, the highest average job satisfaction is in Austria, Switzerland and Spain, while the lowest level of it is found in Poland, Lithuania and France (see Table 5.16, column *Average job satisfaction*).

Surprising results were also found regarding the average satisfaction gender gap. Not only Austria is the country with most satisfied workers, it also has the biggest difference in the average satisfaction of men and women of all countries in Europe. Another countries with a gap over 0.1 on the scale from 1 to 7 are Denmark, Hungary, Norway, Sweden and Switzerland. For example Poland, even though it has substantial difference in percentage of satisfied male and female workers, the average job satisfaction gender gap is quite low (see table 5.16). Countries with equal average job satisfaction of both genders are Lithuania and Slovenia and the countries with on average even more satisfied women are Croatia, Estonia, Finland, Germany, Slovakia and Great Britain.

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The finding that men are overall more satisfied with their job supports the assumption that there is no presence of gender paradox in Europe and even though the above mentioned countries have on average more satisfied female employees, the difference is negligible.

Table 5.16: European job satisfaction of workers

Country	Very satisfied (7-6) (%)			Fairly satisfied (5) (%)			Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied (4) (%)		
	male	female	total	male	female	total	male	female	total
Austria	69	62	65	25	28	26	5	6	5
Croatia	41	42	41	36	35	36	19	18	18
Czech Republic	40	37	39	42	44	43	12	14	13
Denmark	56	52	54	28	32	30	10	9	10
Estonia	31	34	33	52	49	50	13	14	13
Finland	50	51	50	37	38	38	5	6	6
France	39	33	36	38	44	41	15	13	14
Hungary	35	39	37	42	31	36	17	21	19
Latvia	41	40	41	41	43	42	13	10	11
Lithuania	24	24	24	46	47	46	25	23	24
Norway	50	46	48	37	41	39	10	8	9
Poland	19	25	22	55	43	49	19	23	21
Russia	46	46	46	30	28	29	18	19	19
Slovakia	36	41	39	47	42	44	12	12	12
Slovenia	40	43	41	39	35	37	18	18	18
Spain	58	53	56	27	33	30	9	9	9
Sweden	48	44	46	33	35	34	10	11	10
Switzerland	66	65	65	29	27	28	5	4	5
Belgium	45	39	42	37	43	40	12	11	11
Germany	49	47	48	39	40	40	7	9	8
Great Britain	46	46	46	38	40	39	8	7	8

European job satisfaction of workers cont.

Country	Fairly dissatisfied (3) (%)			Very dissatisfied (2-1) (%)			Average job satisfaction		
	male	female	total	male	female	total	male	female	total
Austria	1	3	2	0	1	1	4.91	4.67	4.79 *
Croatia	3	4	3	1	1	1	4.25	4.34	4.30
Czech Republic	3	3	3	3	2	2	4.29	4.27	4.28
Denmark	3	5	4	2	2	2	4.57	4.44	4.51
Estonia	3	3	3	1	0	0	4.21	4.27	4.24
Finland	6	4	5	2	1	1	4.42	4.47	4.45
France	6	7	7	2	3	2	4.17	4.08	4.12
Hungary	4	5	5	2	4	3	4.22	4.11	4.16 *
Latvia	4	4	4	1	2	2	4.41	4.37	4.39
Lithuania	4	5	5	1	1	1	4.01	4.01	4.01
Norway	2	4	3	1	1	1	4.48	4.38	4.43 *
Poland	4	5	5	3	4	4	3.88	3.82	3.84
Russia	5	5	5	1	2	1	4.29	4.22	4.25
Slovakia	3	4	3	2	1	2	4.23	4.32	4.28
Slovenia	2	4	2	1	1	2	4.31	4.31	4.31
Spain	3	3	3	3	2	2	4.55	4.48	4.51
Sweden	5	8	7	4	2	3	4.27	4.17	4.22 *
Switzerland	0	3	1	0	1	1	4.81	4.70	4.76 *
Belgium	4	5	5	2	2	2	4.82	4.14	4.18
Germany	3	3	3	2	1	1	4.41	4.42	4.41
Great Britain	5	5	5	3	2	2	4.34	4.38	4.36

Source: ISSP 2015. Author's computations. Sample of European individuals.

Note: \* Difference in average job satisfaction of males and females over 0.1.

# Chapter 6

## Conclusion

This thesis worked with ISSP data from 2015 consisting of sample of 1435 individuals. Results of the survey were obtained by analyzing distributions of answers and constructing simple model and three multiple models running both OLS and ordered probit regressions. The main aim was to show an impact of gender, other socio-demographic factors and different work aspects on overall job satisfaction of employees in the Czech Republic. The outcomes revealed some significant differences between genders, specifically discrimination based on sex or disadvantage of female workers regarding income and access to leading positions. Despite the theory of gender paradox, predicting women to be more satisfied at work than men, our sample showed the opposite. According to this study, male employees in the Czech Republic possess, on average, a higher level of job satisfaction than female employees, which enables us to reject the main hypothesis, that such paradox is present in the Czech Republic. Further, we hypothesized that even with the absence of gender paradox, controls for job aspects would reveal female lower job satisfaction. This hypothesis can be rejected as no gender difference in job satisfaction was found when various job aspects were taken into account.

Furthermore, the study evaluated aspects of work, that affect the overall job satisfaction. Some of them cannot be changed by an employer, such as the interest of a worker in the job or relations with coworkers and management, that show to have considerable impact on job satisfaction of both genders.

Some of the aspects though can be adjusted by an employer to some extent in order to make his/her workers more satisfied, motivated and productive. For instance, a suitable level of independence given to an employee was revealed as factor determining happiness at work of both men and women. Unlike women,

male workers appreciate opportunities for advancement, income, working on weekends and given freedom in deciding about working hours. The regularity of working hours, though, has negative impact on their job satisfaction. The job satisfaction of women is negatively affected by stressful work and bad relations.

In European comparison, the Czech Republic shows completely average results regarding both sex discrimination and job satisfaction. The highest level of sex discrimination of women was revealed in Austria, Sweden and Norway, while the lowest level is in Estonia and Russia. Both of these also present the lowest difference in share of sex discriminated women and men. On average, least satisfied workers are in Poland, France, Hungary and Sweden and the most satisfied ones are in Austria, Switzerland and Spain. Generally, male workers in Europe tend to be more satisfied, than female workers except for Finland, Latvia, Lithuania, Spain and Great Britain, where, even though women are on average slightly more significant, the difference is negligible. These five countries are thus the only ones which indicate the existence of gender paradox. However, as the difference is insignificant, we rather conclude that the gender paradox is not present in European countries.

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**Appendix A**

**Appendix**

Table A.1: Marginal effects - Ordered probit Model 1

	Completely satisfied (7)		Very satisfied (6)		Fairly satisfied (5)		Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied (4)	
Variable	dy/dx	Std. Err.	dy/dx	Std. Err.	dy/dx	Std. Err.	dy/dx	Std. Err.
female	-0.0230	0.0233	-0.0139	0.0140	0.0092	0.0096	0.0162	0.0163
	Fairly dissatisfied (3)		Very dissatisfied (2)		Completely dissatisfied (1)			
Variable	dy/dx	Std. Err.	dy/dx	Std. Err.	dy/dx	Std. Err.		
female	0.0054	0.0056	0.0033	.0035	0.0029	0.0031		

*Source:* ISSP 2015. Author's computations. Sub-sample of employees.

Table A.2: Marginal effects - Ordered probit Model 2

Variable	Completely satisfied (7)		Very satisfied (6)		Fairly satisfied (5)	
	dy/dx	Std. Err.	dy/dx	Std. Err.	dy/dx	Std. Err.
female	0.0170	0.0160	0.0261	0.0241	-0.0182	0.0169
age	-0.0032	0.0049	-0.0049	0.0074	0.0035	0.0053
age2	0.0000	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0000	0.0001
edsec	-.0212	0.0178	-0.0324	0.0272	0.0225	0.0189
edter	-0.0059	0.0247	-0.0092	0.0393	0.0062	0.0252
separated	0.0031	0.0879	0.0046	0.1290	-0.0034	0.0974
divorced	0.0109	0.0211	0.0159	0.0297	-0.0121	0.0242
single	-0.0189	0.0192	-0.0300	0.0316	0.0192	0.0184
widowed	0.0160	0.0479	0.0224	0.0620	-0.0183	0.0578
children	0.0001	0.0008	0.0002	0.0012	-0.0001	0.0009
income	0.0013	0.0034	0.0019	0.0051	-0.0014	0.0036
lossfear	-0.0026	0.0157	-0.0040	0.0239	0.0028	0.0168
secure	0.0241	0.0275	0.0418	0.0542	-0.0208	0.0162
highincome	0.0211	0.0187	0.0343	0.0324	-0.0205	0.0163
advance	0.0326	0.0181	0.0507	0.0288	-0.0333	0.0185
interest	0.0724	0.0129	0.1636	0.0280	0.0404	0.0498
indep	0.0320	0.0169	0.0508	0.0279	-0.0318	0.0165
satsecure	0.0052	0.0074	0.0079	0.0112	-0.0056	0.0079
satincome	0.0167	0.0090	0.0253	0.0136	-0.0179	0.0101
satadvance	0.0084	0.0081	0.0127	0.0124	-0.0090	0.0089
satinterest	0.0673	0.0113	0.1022	0.0161	-0.0722	0.0166
satindep	0.0265	0.0081	0.0403	0.0122	-0.0285	0.0099
greatrelations	0.1492	0.0433	0.1367	0.0262	-0.1804	0.0517
badrelations	-0.0666	0.0129	-0.1517	0.0306	-0.0328	0.0536
subordinates	0.0098	0.0187	0.0478	0.0283	-0.0404	0.0282
hardwork	-0.0465	0.0148	0.0145	0.0270	-0.0108	0.0211
stressfullwork	-0.0075	0.0317	-0.0753	0.0247	0.0437	0.0149
homework	0.0358	0.0201	-0.0119	0.0519	0.0077	0.0308
weekendwork	0.0378	0.0222	0.0495	0.0254	-0.0410	0.0246
timefreedom	-0.0444	0.0279	0.0713	0.0516	-0.0239	0.0110
regulartime	0.0333	0.0278	-0.0571	0.0303	0.0530	0.0353
orgfreedom	0.0333	0.0278	0.0445	0.0328	-0.0390	0.0347
houroff	0.0327	0.0163	0.0489	0.0237	-0.0349	0.0181

Marginal effects - Ordered probit Model 2 cont.

Variable	Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied (4)		Fairly dissatisfied (3)	
	dy/dx	Std. Err.	dy/dx	Std. Err.
female	-0.0213	0.0197	-0.0027	0.0027
age	0.0040	0.0060	0.0005	0.0008
age2	-0.0001	0.0001	0.0000	0.0000
edsec	0.0265	0.0224	0.0034	0.0031
edter	0.0076	0.0329	0.0010	0.0043
separated	-0.0037	0.1022	-0.0005	0.0126
divorced	-0.0126	0.0230	-0.0016	0.0028
single	0.0252	0.0275	0.0033	0.0039
widowed	-0.0172	0.0453	-0.0021	0.0052
children	-0.0002	0.0010	0.0000	0.0001
income	-0.0016	0.0041	-0.0002	0.0005
lossfear	0.0032	0.0194	0.0004	0.0025
secure	-0.0376	0.0544	-0.0053	0.0086
highincome	-0.0295	0.0295	-0.0040	0.0043
advance	-0.0423	0.0246	-0.0056	0.0038
interest	-0.2058	0.0511	-0.0452	0.0195
indep	-0.0431	0.0246	-0.0057	0.0039
satsecure	-0.0064	0.0091	-0.0008	0.0012
satincome	-0.0205	0.0110	-0.0026	0.0016
satadvance	-0.0103	0.0100	-0.0013	0.0013
satinterest	-0.0829	0.0136	-0.0105	0.0035
satindep	-0.0327	0.0099	-0.0041	0.0018
greatrelations	-0.0926	0.0171	-0.0096	0.0035
badrelations	0.1889	0.0581	0.0403	0.0206
subordinates	-0.0365	0.0205	-0.0043	0.0026
hardwork	-0.0116	0.0211	-0.0014	0.0026
stressfullwork	0.0656	0.0230	0.0090	0.0043
homework	0.0099	0.0446	0.0013	0.0060
weekendwork	-0.0381	0.0186	-0.0046	0.0026
timefreedom	-0.0698	0.0609	-0.0108	0.0117
regulartime	0.0421	0.0206	0.0048	0.0026
orgfreedom	-0.0335	0.0229	-0.0039	0.0028
houroff	-0.0397	0.0194	-0.0051	0.0029

Marginal effects - Ordered probit Model 2 cont.

Variable	Very dissatisfied (2)		Completely dissatisfied (1)	
	dy/dx	Std. Err.	dy/dx	Std. Err.
female	-0.0008	0.0008	-0.0002	0.0003
age	0.0001	0.0002	0.0000	0.0001
age2	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
edsec	0.0010	0.0010	0.0003	0.0003
edter	0.0003	0.0013	0.0001	0.0004
separated	-0.0001	0.0036	0.0000	0.0010
divorced	-0.0004	0.0008	-0.0001	0.0002
single	0.0010	0.0012	0.0003	0.0004
widowed	-0.0006	0.0014	-0.0002	0.0004
children	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
income	-0.0001	0.0002	0.0000	0.0000
lossfear	0.0001	0.0007	0.0000	0.0002
secure	-0.0016	0.0028	-0.0005	0.0010
highincome	-0.0012	0.0014	-0.0003	0.0005
advance	-0.0016	0.0013	-0.0005	0.0005
interest	-0.0177	0.0103	-0.0075	0.0059
indep	-0.0017	0.0013	-0.0005	0.0005
satsecure	-0.0002	0.0004	-0.0001	0.0001
satincome	-0.0007	0.0005	-0.0002	0.0002
satadvance	-0.0004	0.0004	-0.0001	0.0001
satinterest	-0.0030	0.0015	-0.0009	0.0006
satindep	-0.0012	0.0007	-0.0003	0.0003
greatrelations	-0.0025	0.0014	-0.0007	0.0005
badrelations	0.0155	0.0099	0.0064	0.0051
subordinates	-0.0012	0.0009	-0.0003	0.0003
hardwork	-0.0004	0.0008	-0.0001	0.0002
stressfullwork	0.0027	0.0017	0.0008	0.0007
homework	0.0004	0.0018	0.0001	0.0005
weekendwork	-0.0013	0.0009	-0.0004	0.0003
timefreedom	-0.0035	0.0042	-0.0011	0.0016
regulartime	0.0013	0.0009	0.0004	0.0003
orgfreedom	-0.0011	0.0009	-0.0003	0.0003
houroff	-0.0015	0.0010	-0.0004	0.0004

Source: ISSP 2015. Author's computations. Sub-sample of employees.

Table A.3: Marginal effects - Ordered probit Model 3 MALE

Variable	Completely satisfied (7)		Very satisfied (6)		Fairly satisfied (5)	
	dy/dx	Std. Err.	dy/dx	Std. Err.	dy/dx	Std. Err.
age	-0.0090	0.0059	-0.0231	0.0145	0.0197	0.0128
age2	0.0001	0.0001	0.0003	0.0002	-0.0003	0.0002
edsec	-0.0504	0.0201	-0.1339	0.0471	0.1017	0.0371
edter	-0.0254	0.0195	-0.0755	0.0649	0.0511	0.0335
separated	-0.0438	0.0137	-0.2154	0.0425	-0.2683	0.4481
divorced	0.0012	0.0263	0.0031	0.0664	-0.0026	0.0576
single	0.0063	0.0251	0.0160	0.0622	-0.0139	0.0549
widowed	0.0206	0.0731	0.0456	0.1402	-0.0451	0.1577
children	0.0140	0.0114	0.0358	0.0283	-0.0305	0.0245
income	0.0064	0.0041	0.0165	0.0101	-0.0140	0.0089
lossfear	-0.0136	0.0170	-0.0354	0.0444	0.0295	0.0366
secure	0.0343	0.0168	0.1215	0.0743	-0.0490	0.0295
highincome	0.0072	0.0206	0.0190	0.0560	-0.0155	0.0441
advance	0.0432	0.0203	0.1146	0.0505	-0.0892	0.0393
interest	0.0642	0.0180	0.2575	0.0370	0.1875	0.1099
indep	0.0033	0.0198	0.0084	0.0515	-0.0071	0.0434
satsecure	0.0127	0.0085	0.0325	0.0209	-0.0277	0.0183
satincome	0.0118	0.0096	0.0303	0.0238	-0.0259	0.0206
satadvance	0.0114	0.0090	0.0292	0.0227	-0.0249	0.0199
satinterest	0.0629	0.0163	0.1615	0.0323	-0.1378	0.0350
satindep	0.0237	0.0100	0.0608	0.0243	-0.0519	0.0225
greatrelations	0.0406	0.0382	0.0834	0.0622	-0.0875	0.0779
badrelations	-0.0437	0.0145	-0.1820	0.0556	-0.0143	0.1221
subordinates	0.0564	0.0327	0.1142	0.0519	-0.1196	0.0647
hardwork	0.0148	0.0199	0.0363	0.0460	-0.0325	0.0432
stressfullwork	-0.0282	0.0157	-0.0779	0.0439	0.0590	0.0315
homework	0.0643	0.0699	0.1138	0.0862	-0.1334	0.1310
weekendwork	0.0561	0.0295	0.1166	0.0488	-0.1192	0.0583
timefreedom	0.0486	0.0146	0.2094	0.0399	0.0787	0.1231
regulartime	-0.0537	0.0378	-0.1047	0.0555	0.1139	0.0736
orgfreedom	0.0118	0.0261	0.0285	0.0589	-0.0260	0.0572
houroff	0.0350	0.0181	0.0901	0.0430	-0.0745	0.0366

Marginal effects - Ordered probit Model 3 MALE cont.

Variable	Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied (4)		Fairly dissatisfied (3)	
	dy/dx	Std. Err.	dy/dx	Std. Err.
age	0.0118	0.0076	0.0005	0.0005
age2	-0.0002	0.0001	0.0000	0.0000
edsec	0.0778	0.0333	0.0036	0.0031
edter	0.0469	0.0494	0.0022	0.0031
separated	0.4028	0.2306	0.0721	0.1280
divorced	-0.0016	0.0334	-0.0001	0.0013
single	-0.0080	0.0308	-0.0003	0.0012
widowed	-0.0202	0.0537	-0.0007	0.0018
children	-0.0183	0.0149	-0.0007	0.0008
income	-0.0084	0.0053	-0.0003	0.0003
lossfear	0.0185	0.0240	0.0007	0.0011
secure	-0.0988	0.0949	-0.0059	0.0084
highincome	-0.0100	0.0309	-0.0004	0.0013
advance	-0.0648	0.0328	-0.0029	0.0027
interest	-0.4029	0.0871	-0.0633	0.0392
indep	-0.0043	0.0266	-0.0002	0.0011
satsecure	-0.0166	0.0111	-0.0007	0.0006
satincome	-0.0155	0.0125	-0.0006	0.0007
satadvance	-0.0149	0.0116	-0.0006	0.0006
satinterest	-0.0825	0.0206	-0.0033	0.0025
satindep	-0.0311	0.0128	-0.0012	0.0011
greatrelations	-0.0350	0.0226	-0.0012	0.0012
badrelations	0.2128	0.1461	0.0186	0.0225
subordinates	-0.0488	0.0208	-0.0017	0.0015
hardwork	-0.0178	0.0219	-0.0007	0.0010
stressfullwork	0.0445	0.0283	0.0019	0.0020
homework	-0.0430	0.0253	-0.0014	0.0013
weekendwork	-0.0511	0.0211	-0.0018	0.0016
timefreedom	-0.2882	0.1150	-0.0317	0.0285
regulartime	0.0427	0.0204	0.0014	0.0013
orgfreedom	-0.0137	0.0268	-0.0005	0.0010
houroff	-0.0479	0.0253	-0.0020	0.0018

Marginal effects - Ordered probit Model 3 MALE cont.

Variable	Very dissatisfied (2)		Completely dissatisfied (1)	
	dy/dx	Std. Err.	dy/dx	Std. Err.
age	0.0001	0.0002	0.0000	0.0000
age2	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
edsec	0.0011	0.0012	0.0000	0.0000
edter	0.0007	0.0011	0.0000	0.0000
separated	0.0500	0.1233	0.0027	0.0103
divorced	0.0000	0.0004	0.0000	0.0000
single	-0.0001	0.0004	0.0000	0.0000
widowed	-0.0002	0.0005	0.0000	0.0000
children	-0.0002	0.0003	0.0000	0.0000
income	-0.0001	0.0001	0.0000	0.0000
lossfear	0.0002	0.0004	0.0000	0.0000
secure	-0.0021	0.0036	0.0000	0.0001
highincome	-0.0001	0.0004	0.0000	0.0000
advance	-0.0009	0.0010	0.0000	0.0000
interest	-0.0411	0.0318	-0.0020	0.0036
indep	-0.0001	0.0003	0.0000	0.0000
satsecure	-0.0002	0.0002	0.0000	0.0000
satincome	-0.0002	0.0002	0.0000	0.0000
satadvance	-0.0002	0.0002	0.0000	0.0000
satinterest	-0.0009	0.0010	0.0000	0.0000
satindep	-0.0004	0.0004	0.0000	0.0000
greatrelations	-0.0003	0.0004	0.0000	0.0000
badrelations	0.0083	0.0119	0.0002	0.0005
subordinates	-0.0005	0.0005	0.0000	0.0000
hardwork	-0.0002	0.0003	0.0000	0.0000
stressfullwork	0.0006	0.0008	0.0000	0.0000
homework	-0.0004	0.0004	0.0000	0.0000
weekendwork	-0.0005	0.0006	0.0000	0.0000
timefreedom	-0.0163	0.0184	-0.0005	0.0011
regulartime	0.0004	0.0005	0.0000	0.0000
orgfreedom	-0.0001	0.0003	0.0000	0.0000
houroff	-0.0006	0.0007	0.0000	0.0000

Source: ISSP 2015. Author's computations. Sub-sample of employees.

Table A.4: Marginal effects - Ordered probit Model 3 FEMALE

Variable	Completely satisfied (7)		Very satisfied (6)		Fairly satisfied (5)	
	dy/dx	Std. Err.	dy/dx	Std. Err.	dy/dx	Std. Err.
age	0.0000	0.0069	0.0000	0.0097	0.0000	0.0056
age2	0.0000	0.0001	0.0000	0.0001	0.0000	0.0001
edsec	0.0159	0.0277	0.0224	0.0390	-0.0128	0.0225
edter	0.0268	0.0460	0.0345	0.0537	-0.0247	0.0464
separated	0.2172	0.2995	0.1304	0.0477	-0.2340	0.2942
divorced	0.0134	0.0278	0.0183	0.0365	-0.0115	0.0252
single	-0.0161	0.0297	-0.0237	0.0455	0.0118	0.0197
widowed	0.0225	0.0632	0.0286	0.0725	-0.0210	0.0651
children	0.0000	0.0008	0.0000	0.0011	0.0000	0.0007
income	-0.0012	0.0046	-0.0017	0.0065	0.0010	0.0038
lossfear	0.0026	0.0222	0.0037	0.0312	-0.0021	0.0179
secure	-0.0094	0.0654	-0.0127	0.0842	0.0082	0.0604
highincome	0.0182	0.0287	0.0274	0.0457	-0.0127	0.0171
advance	0.0171	0.0263	0.0245	0.0380	-0.0134	0.0203
interest	0.0531	0.0215	0.0984	0.0488	0.0010	0.0401
indep	0.0453	0.0234	0.0687	0.0369	-0.0289	0.0165
satsecure	-0.0040	0.0105	-0.0057	0.0148	0.0032	0.0086
satincome	0.0084	0.0136	0.0118	0.0193	-0.0068	0.0112
satadvance	0.0039	0.0118	0.0055	0.0167	-0.0031	0.0096
satinterest	0.0654	0.0154	0.0921	0.0210	-0.0529	0.0204
satindep	0.0264	0.0115	0.0371	0.0165	-0.0213	0.0114
greatrelations	0.2292	0.0698	0.1617	0.0328	-0.2371	0.0727
badrelations	-0.0650	0.0186	-0.1278	0.0394	-0.0277	0.0561
subordinates	0.0274	0.0316	0.0357	0.0380	-0.0247	0.0313
hardwork	0.0031	0.0283	0.0043	0.0391	-0.0025	0.0237
stressfullwork	-0.0480	0.0218	-0.0711	0.0330	0.0325	0.0177
homework	-0.0465	0.0278	-0.0853	0.0649	0.0032	0.0429
weekendwork	0.0402	0.0304	0.0514	0.0352	-0.0368	0.0315
timefreedom	-0.0438	0.0937	-0.0507	0.0890	0.0440	0.1047
regulartime	-0.0167	0.0348	-0.0221	0.0432	0.0149	0.0334
orgfreedom	0.0431	0.0468	0.0515	0.0477	-0.0422	0.0516
houroff	0.0306	0.0244	0.0420	0.0324	-0.0254	0.0220

Marginal effects - Ordered probit Model 3 FEMALE cont.

Variable	Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied (4)		Fairly dissatisfied (3)	
	dy/dx	Std. Err.	dy/dx	Std. Err.
age	0.0000	0.0090	0.0000	0.0016
age2	0.0000	0.0001	0.0000	0.0000
edsec	-0.0208	0.0364	-0.0037	0.0065
edter	-0.0304	0.0450	-0.0050	0.0071
separated	-0.0989	0.0465	-0.0122	0.0060
divorced	-0.0166	0.0324	-0.0028	0.0055
single	0.0227	0.0451	0.0041	0.0086
widowed	-0.0250	0.0596	-0.0041	0.0091
children	0.0000	0.0011	0.0000	0.0002
income	0.0016	0.0061	0.0003	0.0011
lossfear	-0.0035	0.0291	-0.0006	0.0051
secure	0.0115	0.0740	0.0019	0.0121
highincome	-0.0266	0.0465	-0.0049	0.0092
advance	-0.0230	0.0362	-0.0041	0.0067
interest	-0.1157	0.0717	-0.0274	0.0231
indep	-0.0683	0.0391	-0.0131	0.0092
satsecure	0.0053	0.0137	0.0009	0.0024
satincome	-0.0110	0.0177	-0.0019	0.0032
satadvance	-0.0051	0.0155	-0.0009	0.0027
satinterest	-0.0856	0.0192	-0.0150	0.0059
satindep	-0.0345	0.0149	-0.0060	0.0032
greatrelations	-0.1307	0.0260	-0.0185	0.0077
badrelations	0.1613	0.0667	0.0430	0.0275
subordinates	-0.0317	0.0326	-0.0053	0.0054
hardwork	-0.0040	0.0359	-0.0007	0.0062
stressfullwork	0.0697	0.0337	0.0131	0.0080
homework	0.0984	0.0930	0.0226	0.0277
weekendwork	-0.0454	0.0295	-0.0075	0.0053
timefreedom	0.0424	0.0673	0.0065	0.0092
regulartime	0.0198	0.0373	0.0033	0.0060
orgfreedom	-0.0438	0.0369	-0.0069	0.0058
houroff	-0.0387	0.0296	-0.0067	0.0055

Marginal effects - Ordered probit Model 3 FEMALE cont.

Variable	Very dissatisfied (2)		Completely dissatisfied (1)	
	dy/dx	Std. Err.	dy/dx	Std. Err.
age	0.0000	0.0002	0.0000	0.0002
age2	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
edsec	-0.0005	0.0009	-0.0005	0.0010
edter	-0.0006	0.0010	-0.0007	0.0010
separated	-0.0014	0.0012	-0.0013	0.0011
divorced	-0.0004	0.0008	-0.0004	0.0008
single	0.0005	0.0012	0.0006	0.0013
widowed	-0.0005	0.0012	-0.0005	0.0012
children	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
income	0.0000	0.0001	0.0000	0.0002
lossfear	-0.0001	0.0007	-0.0001	0.0007
secure	0.0002	0.0015	0.0003	0.0016
highincome	-0.0007	0.0013	-0.0007	0.0015
advance	-0.0005	0.0010	-0.0006	0.0010
interest	-0.0042	0.0049	-0.0052	0.0063
indep	-0.0018	0.0018	-0.0020	0.0020
satsecure	0.0001	0.0003	0.0001	0.0004
satincome	-0.0002	0.0005	-0.0003	0.0005
satadvance	-0.0001	0.0004	-0.0001	0.0004
satinterest	-0.0019	0.0016	-0.0021	0.0016
satindep	-0.0008	0.0007	-0.0008	0.0007
greatrelations	-0.0022	0.0019	-0.0023	0.0019
badrelations	0.0070	0.0067	0.0093	0.0086
subordinates	-0.0007	0.0008	-0.0007	0.0008
hardwork	-0.0001	0.0008	-0.0001	0.0009
stressfullwork	0.0018	0.0017	0.0020	0.0019
homework	0.0034	0.0052	0.0041	0.0067
weekendwork	-0.0009	0.0010	-0.0010	0.0000
timefreedom	0.0008	0.0012	0.0008	0.0012
regulartime	0.0004	0.0008	0.0004	0.0008
orgfreedom	-0.0009	0.0009	-0.0009	0.0009
houroff	-0.0009	0.0009	-0.0009	0.0010

Source: ISSP 2015. Author's computations. Sub-sample of employees.