

Accepted Manuscript

Decent work in Switzerland: Context, conceptualization, and assessment

Jonas Masdonati, Marc Schreiber, Jenny Marcionetti, Jérôme Rossier



PII: S0001-8791(18)30141-6
DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2018.11.004>
Reference: YJVBE 3248

To appear in: *Journal of Vocational Behavior*

Received date: 4 June 2018
Revised date: 12 November 2018
Accepted date: 14 November 2018

Please cite this article as: Jonas Masdonati, Marc Schreiber, Jenny Marcionetti, Jérôme Rossier, Decent work in Switzerland: Context, conceptualization, and assessment. *Yjvbe* (2018), <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2018.11.004>

This is a PDF file of an unedited manuscript that has been accepted for publication. As a service to our customers we are providing this early version of the manuscript. The manuscript will undergo copyediting, typesetting, and review of the resulting proof before it is published in its final form. Please note that during the production process errors may be discovered which could affect the content, and all legal disclaimers that apply to the journal pertain.

Decent Work in Switzerland: Context, Conceptualization, and Assessment

Jonas Masdonati*¹, Marc Schreiber², Jenny Marcionetti³, and Jérôme Rossier^{1,4}¹ Institute of Psychology, University of Lausanne, Switzerland² IAP Institute of Applied Psychology, Zurich University of Applied Sciences (ZHAW),
Switzerland³ Department of Education and Learning, University of Applied Sciences and Arts of
Southern Switzerland (SUPSI), Locarno, Switzerland⁴ NCCR-LIVES, University of Lausanne, Switzerland

* Corresponding author: jonas.masdonati@unil.ch

Institute of Psychology, University of Lausanne

UNIL-Mouline, Géopolis 4239

CH-1015 Lausanne, Switzerland

Telephone number: +41(0)216923164, Fax number: +41(0)216923265

Acknowledgments

We acknowledge the input of the following colleagues who collaborated on the French and Italian translation process of the DWS: Geneviève Fournier and the researchers of the Centre de recherche et d'intervention sur l'éducation et la vie au travail (CRIEVAT), Université Laval, Quebec City, Canada; Annamaria Di Fabio, University of Florence, Italy. We also thank Laurence Fedrigo, Marie-Louise Susanne Iller, and Cecilia Toscanelli, who helped with the qualitative analyses. Data collection benefited from the financial support of the Swiss National Centre of Competence in Research LIVES—Overcoming Vulnerability: Life Course

Perspective, financed by the Swiss National Science Foundation (Grant Number 51NF40-160590).

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to adapt the Decent Work Scale (DWS; Duffy et al., 2017) and extend the research on the Psychology of Working Theory (PWT; Duffy, Blustein, Diemer, & Autin, 2016) within the Swiss context. The results indicated that the Swiss French, German, and Italian versions of the DWS are valid measurements. We then tested PWT predictors and outcomes of decent work. Work volition fully mediated the negative link between unemployment, quantitative job insecurity and low education, and decent work. Perceived social class and qualitative job security predicted decent work with partial mediations through work volition. Work volition and decent work predicted job and life satisfaction. With the exception of age and social class, work volition or decent work fully mediated the relation between predictors and outcomes. Qualitative analyses on an open-ended question showed that the perceived components of decent work covered both the PWT dimensions of decent work and the needs that work is expected to satisfy. These findings highlight the pertinence of using the DWS and applying the PWT in Western and prosperous countries, such as Switzerland.

Keywords: decent work, job insecurity, job satisfaction, life satisfaction, work volition, Switzerland

1. Introduction

1.1 Decent Work

Contemporary careers are affected by tight labor market conditions and the changing nature of work (Blustein, Kenny, Di Fabio, & Guichard, 2018). Labor market conditions, unemployment, underemployment, precarious work, and income inequalities are considered to be threats to social inclusion throughout the world (International Labor Organization [ILO], 2008, 2017). As for the changing nature of work, it is subsumed with the expression of the Second Machine Age (Brynjolfsson & McAfee, 2014) or the Fourth Industrial Revolution (Hirschi, 2018), and both expressions stress the transformation of the workforce due to technological changes and the digitalization and robotization of employment (Frey & Osborne, 2017).

Within this context, accessing decent work has become a critical challenge worldwide. The ILO (2013) considers decent work to be not only a fundamental human right but also one of the main challenges the world is facing. According to the ILO, the conditions for decent work are the following: having access to full and productive employment, benefitting from rights at work, having guarantees of social protection, and promoting social dialogue. These conditions are operationalized into ten substantive elements:

“employment opportunities; adequate earnings and productive work; decent working time; combining work, family and personal life; work that should be abolished; stability and security of work; equal opportunity and treatment in employment; safe work environment; social security; and social dialogue, employers’ and workers’ representation.” (p. 12)

The issue of decent work also concerns vocational psychology and career counseling. For example, Blustein et al. (2018) advocate “the need for a broad community of scholars from diverse perspectives tackling the growing problems faced by people across the globe in their

quest for decent and dignified work” (p. 4). A psychological perspective of decent work focuses on the effect of work on individuals’ well-being, psychological health, and identity (Blustein, Masdonati, & Rossier, 2017; Blustein, Olle, Connors-Kellgren, & Diamonti, 2016; Pouyaud, 2016).

1.2 The Psychology of Working Theory

The Psychology of Working Theory (PWT; Duffy, Blustein, Diemer, & Autin, 2016) elucidates the link between the ILO definition of decent work and a psychological approach to working. This theory is anchored on Blustein’s (2013) Psychology of Working Framework, which stresses the need to consider work (1) as a major determinant of well-being; (2) in interconnection with other life spheres; (3) as affected by socioeconomic and political influences; (4) as covering also nonpaid activities, such as caregiving; and (5) as concerning both workers and nonworkers who strive to work. According to the PWT, decent work encompasses five characteristics: “(a) physical and interpersonally safe working conditions (e.g., absent of physical, mental, or emotional abuse), (b) hours that allow for free time and adequate rest, (c) organizational values that complement family and social values, (d) adequate compensation, and (e) access to adequate health care” (Duffy et al., 2016, p. 130). The access to decent work is limited by social and contextual factors, such as economic constraints and marginalization processes. Moreover, decent work leads to the satisfaction of three types of human needs: survival, social connection, and self-determination. These in turn predict fulfillment at work and general well-being.

The PWT also postulates that psychosocial factors, such as work volition and career adaptability, mediate the influences of social and contextual factors on the chances of doing decent work (Duffy et al., 2016). Work volition consists of “the perceived capacity to make occupational choices despite constraints” (Duffy, Diemer, Perry, Laurenzi, & Torrey, 2012, p. 402), where “constraints” refer to perceived financial and structural barriers. Career

adaptability “is a psychosocial construct that denotes an individual’s resources for coping with current and anticipated tasks, transitions, traumas in their occupational roles” (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012, p. 662). Finally, moderator factors—such as proactive personality, critical consciousness, social support, and economic conditions—also intervene in the relation between economic constraints or marginalization and the access to decent work.

Qualitative and quantitative types of empirical research have recently been conducted on the PWT on blue-collar workers (Koekemoer, Le Roux Fourie, & Ilyna Jorgensen, 2018), racially and ethnically diverse workers (Duffy et al., 2018), people with chronic health conditions (Tokar & Kaut, 2018), sexual minorities (Allan, Tebbe, Bouchard, & Duffy, 2018; Douglass, Velez, Conlin, Duffy, & England, 2017), unemployed people (Kossen & McIlveen, 2018), and working adults (Allan, Autin, & Duffy, 2016; Kim, Fouad, Maeda, Xie, & Nazan, 2017). Such research generally confirm that marginalization and economic constraints negatively predict the access to decent work and that work volition plays a key role in this process. They also emphasize that doing a decent job is associated with meaningful work, the possibility to fulfill different basic human needs, and well-being.

Based on the PWT and on the ILO’s definition of decent work, Duffy et al. (2017) developed the Decent Work Scale (DWS), which assesses an overall score and five dimensions of decent work: safe working conditions, access to health care, adequate compensation, free time and rest, and complementary values. The DWS was recently cross-culturally validated in the Turkish context, confirming the good psychometric properties of the scale and its invariance across gender, income, and social class (Isik, Kozan, & Isik, 2018). However, additional aspects and characteristics of work may have to be considered to assess not only decent but dignified work from a psychological perspective (Blustein et al., 2018). For example, we believe that work should guarantee quantitative and qualitative job security and prevent situations in which workers fear losing their jobs and anticipate a

deterioration of their working and living conditions (Urbanavičiūtė, Bagdžiūnienė, Lazauskaitė-Zabielskė, Vander Elst, & De Witte, 2015).

1.3 The Swiss Context

Switzerland is an 8.5-million habitant federal republic divided into three main linguistic and cultural regions: a German-, a French-, and an Italian-speaking areas, each representing 63%, 23%, and 8% of the population, respectively¹. Romansh is a fourth cultural and linguistic community covering less than 1% of the population. People speaking Romansh always master another national language, usually German and sometimes Italian. Another characteristic of the Swiss population is the high rate of foreign nationals, which reached 25% of the population in 2016 and mainly came from European countries—Italy, Germany, Portugal, France, and Kosovo (Federal Statistical Office [FSO], 2017). Although geographically situated in the middle of Europe, Switzerland does not belong to the European Union, with which the economic and political relations are regulated through bilateral agreements.

Literature is scarce about work ethics in Switzerland and work-related cultural differences between the three linguistic regions. A recent study by Egli, Mayer, and Mast (2017) on qualities that children are encouraged to learn shows that unselfishness is a weaker value in the German-speaking region, and that hard work is a stronger value in the French-speaking region. The three regions do not significantly differ on obedience and independence values, although independence tends to be more important in the German-speaking region and obedience tends to prevail in the French-speaking region. The website *hofstede-insights.com*—which compares countries according to cultural values in the workplace on the basis of Hofstede's work—indicates that Switzerland has high levels of individualism, masculinity, long-term orientation, and indulgence, as well as low levels of power distance

¹ www.swissinfo.ch

(“What about Switzerland?”, 2018). When compared with the German-speaking region, the French-speaking region scores higher on power distance and uncertainty avoidance.

The Swiss labor market is qualified as “rather liberal” and is characterized with small to medium organizations, a tradition of social partnerships, and an incentive social welfare system (Nathani, Hellmüller, Rieser, Hoff, & Nesarajah, 2017). The Swiss workforce is relatively highly qualified, thanks to a well-performing education system, including a well-developed and socially valued vocational education system (Eichhorst, Rodríguez-Planas, Schmidl, & Zimmermann, 2015). Compared with the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) countries, the Swiss labor market scores above average (in the top third) in most of the indicators of job quantity (i.e., employment and unemployment rates), job quality (i.e., earnings, job security, and working environment), and inclusiveness (i.e., low income rate and employment gap for disadvantaged groups; OECD, 2017). However, it belongs to the below-average performers for the gender-labor income gap, and the employment gap for disadvantaged groups is increasing.

The changes mentioned above in the labor market conditions and the nature of work worldwide do not spare the Swiss labor market (Walter et al., 2017). For example, between 1997 and 2014, the number of workplaces in the tertiary sector significantly increased, so in 2014, three out of four workers were employed in the service sector (Nathani et al., 2017). At the same time, administrative, routine, manufacturing, and arts and crafts positions decreased, whereas highly qualified occupations increased: in 2015, 38% of Swiss workers were considered to be highly qualified workers. According to Nathani et al. (2017), this upskilling reflects a structural change and is a consequence of technological developments, the digitalization phenomenon, and the delocalization or externalization of low added-value activities. Switzerland differs from most OECD countries, which have faced a labor market

polarization, meaning that the number of workplaces of underqualified and highly qualified workers both increased.

Within this context and despite structural advantages compared with other countries, the Swiss labor market is facing four main challenges: First, although the global unemployment rate remains lower than those of most European and OECD countries (4.6% in 2016; Walter et al., 2017), foreign workers, young people, underqualified workers, and people living in the Italian- and French-speaking parts of Switzerland are experiencing higher risks of unemployment, and both underqualified and older workers are more affected by long-term unemployment (Department of Economic Affairs, Education and Research, 2018; OECD, 2014; State Secretariat for Economic Affairs, 2018). Second, 2.5% of the labor force does precarious forms of work, such as jobs involving temporal and economic insecurity (e.g., fixed-term contracts and on-call jobs; Ecoplan, 2017). Women, young people, foreign workers, underqualified workers, and workers of the French- and Italian-speaking parts of Switzerland are significantly more affected by job insecurity. Third, one out of four workers in Switzerland (25.4% in 2016) experiences stress at work due to time pressures, job insecurity, and a lack of support and leeway (Promotion Santé Suisse, 2017). Stress at work mainly affects young workers, whose resources are often inadequate to cope with job constraints. Fourth, the gender–wage gap was 12.5% in 2014, which puts Switzerland among the worst OECD performers in this indicator (OECD, 2017; Walter et al.). A similar gap is highlighted between Swiss workers and foreign workers, which can partly be explained by the fact that foreign workers are less qualified and younger.

In sum, the Swiss labor market performs globally high when compared with European and OECD countries (OECD, 2014, 2017). However, the experience within the labor market might be more difficult for some social groups: (1) Women have significantly lower incomes and encounter a higher risk of job insecurity; (2) younger workers have higher risks of

unemployment, job insecurity, and job stress; (3) foreign workers have lower incomes and are more at risk for unemployment and job insecurity; (4) underqualified workers experience higher risks for job insecurity, unemployment, and long-term unemployment; (5) older workers have higher risks for long-term unemployment; and (6) people working in the Italian- and French-speaking parts of Switzerland have a higher probability of experiencing job insecurity and unemployment.

1.4 Aims

Based on the particularities of the Swiss labor market and on the need to develop context-specific instruments assessing decent work (Isik et al., 2018), this study aimed first at adapting and examining the psychometric properties of the Swiss version of the DWS (Duffy et al., 2017) in the three national languages: French, German, and Italian. The five original dimensions of decent work were completed with two potentially additional dimensions: lack of stress at work and physical safety. Indeed, stress at work seems to be a central issue for Swiss workers (Promotion Santé Suisse, 2017), whereas physical safety is a decent work substantive element according to the ILO (2013), but it was not distinctly assessed in the original DWS. The second aim of this research was to assess how factors within the PWT (Duffy et al., 2016) predicted and were outcomes of decent work in a sample of workers in Switzerland. Drawing from the PWT and in accordance with the characteristics of the Swiss labor market, we considered age, gender, perceived social class, education, unemployment experiences, and qualitative or quantitative job insecurity (Urbanavičiūtė et al., 2015) to be indicators of socioeconomic constraints and marginalization that predict the access to decent work. Work volition (Duffy et al., 2012) was considered to be a mediating factor between socioeconomic constraints or marginalization and decent work. Our outcomes were life and job satisfaction (Diener, Emmons, Larsen, & Griffin, 1985; Judge, Locke, Durham, & Kluger, 1998), which are considered to be indicators of well-being and work fulfillment—that is, the

two outcomes of decent work according to the PWT. Our third aim was to qualitatively investigate what characteristics and components workers in Switzerland assigned to decent work and to compare them with the dimensions of decent work addressed in the PWT.

2. Methods

2.1 Participants

Participants were 604 workers aged between 18 and 89 years ($M_{age} = 41.80$, $SD = 12.04$) and living in the three linguistic regions of Switzerland: 226 in the French-speaking region (37.4%), 218 in the German-speaking region (36.1%), and 160 in the Italian-speaking region (26.5%). A total of 54.8% ($n = 331$) were women, and 45.2% ($n = 273$) were men; 89.7% were Swiss ($n = 542$), and 10.3% were foreign workers ($n = 62$). A total of 56.5% were employed full time ($n = 341$), 30.3% were employed part time ($n = 183$), and 5.1% were self-employed ($n = 31$), while 8.1% ($n = 49$) had multiple work statuses, such as being employed and a student at the same time or employed and self-employed. Two hundred six participants (34.1%) had experienced unemployment in the past, during a period that lasted 8.5 months on average ($SD = 9.81$).

Participants were asked to indicate their perceived social class: 17.7% believed they belonged to the low-income or the lower-middle class ($n = 107$), 53.6% to the middle class ($n = 324$), and 28.6% to the upper-middle or the upper class ($n = 173$). As for participants' income, 12.1% ($n = 73$) earned less than 50,000 Swiss francs, 18.5% ($n = 112$) earned from 51,000 to 75,000 Swiss francs, 21.2% ($n = 128$) earned from 76,000 to 100,000 Swiss francs, 13.7% ($n = 83$) earned from 101,000 to 125,000 Swiss francs, 7.8% ($n = 47$) from 126,000 to 150,000 Swiss francs, and 19% ($n = 115$) earned 151,000 Swiss francs or more. Note that 46 participants did not indicate their incomes. According to the Swiss statistical office, 7% of the population were below the level of poverty in Switzerland in 2015 and were earning less than 27,000 Swiss francs a year for a single person or less than 50,000 Swiss francs for two adults

and two children. The median income in Switzerland is about 78,000 Swiss francs. Finally, 2.5% ($n = 15$) had a compulsory education level or less (i.e., lower secondary level, corresponding to high school in the United States), 34.3% ($n = 207$) had an upper secondary degree (corresponding to college in the United States), 17.4% ($n = 105$) had tertiary-level technical or professional education, and 45.9% ($n = 277$) had a university degree².

2.2 Procedure

Participants were recruited through a mail invitation that was either sent directly to a potential list of participants drawn from the register of inhabitants or distributed by students who were doing a practical work on methods and statistics and were asked to recruit adult workers within their linguistic region. The letter explained the aims of the study, provided the web address of the online survey, and informed the recipients that for each fulfilled questionnaire, two Swiss francs would be allocated to a charity. Study participation in the online questionnaire was voluntary and in compliance with the ethical rules of the American Psychological Association and the Swiss Society for Psychology. People who agreed to take part in the study had to open a webpage link that directed them to the online questionnaire homepage, where they could choose if they wanted to fill out the questionnaire in German, French, or Italian.

Data collection was divided into two steps. In the first step, the online survey included only closed questions assessing decent work, work volition, job insecurity, and job and life satisfaction. In the second step, an open-ended question was added to the online questionnaire to assess the perceived components of decent work. Five hundred and two participants completed the first step questionnaire, and 104 participants took part in the second step. This subsample comprised 36 French-speaking (34.6%), 35 Italian-speaking (33.7%), and 33

² For an overview of the Swiss system, see <https://www.sbf.admin.ch/sbfi/en/home/bildung/swiss-education-area/das-duale-system.html>

German-speaking (31.7%) workers. Sixty nine participants were female (66.3%), and 35 were male (33.7%); the mean age was 35.55 ($SD = 10.32$). The total number of participants was 604 because two participants completed the open-ended question without fulfilling the rest of the questionnaire and were then only considered for the qualitative analyses.

2.3 Measures

2.3.1 Decent Work

Decent work was assessed through an adaptation of the 15-item DWS (Duffy et al., 2017). The original version of the DWS is divided into five 3-item subscales: Safe Working Conditions (e.g., “I feel emotionally safe interacting with people at work”), Access to Health Care (e.g., “I get good health care benefits from my job”), Adequate Compensation (e.g., “I am rewarded adequately for my work”), Free Time and Rest (e.g., “I have free time during the work week”), and Complementary Values (e.g., “The values of my organization match my family values”). Answer options range from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*) on a 7-point Likert scale. Internal consistencies in Duffy et al.’s study were the following: Safe Working Conditions, $\alpha = .79$; Access to Health Care, $\alpha = .97$; Adequate Compensation, $\alpha = .87$; Free Time and Rest, $\alpha = .87$; Complementary Values, $\alpha = .95$; and Total Scale, $\alpha = .86$.

The adaptation of the DWS consisted of a translation/back-translation process and an adjustment of the items to meet the specificities of the Swiss context (van Widenfelt, Treffers, de Beurs, Siebelink, & Koudijs, 2005) (Tables 1, 2, and 3). Concerning the translation/back-translation process, two native-speaking researchers in each linguistic region, including the authors of this paper, first translated the original items from English into their language (i.e., French, German, and Italian). Second, these items were back-translated into English by three bilingual native English speakers, one for each linguistic region. A comparison of the back-translated versions and the original versions of the three questionnaires was performed, and items were amended when needed. Third, the authors of this paper met to compare the results

and, when needed, to edit and make the French, German, and Italian questionnaires uniform. The Italian and the French translations and back-translations were also compared with parallel versions performed by Italian and French-Canadian research teams who had worked on the DWS adaptations in their national contexts. This step of the process was not performed for the German translation/back-translation process, because the DWS had not been adapted for Germany.

The translated DWS items were then consensually adjusted by the authors of this paper according to the specificities of the Swiss context. The first adjustment consisted of the reformulation of the three Access to Health Care subscale items, because in Switzerland health care protection is independent of the workplace and is a matter of political regulation: All citizens are provided minimal health insurance and can add complementary protections through private insurances. We then formulated the three Access to Health Care items of the Swiss version of the DWS as follows: “The Swiss health system offers good coverage”; “The Swiss compulsory health insurance offers good health services”; and “The options offered by the Swiss health care system are acceptable.”

The second adjustment procedure comprised the conception of six new items aiming at assessing two decent work dimensions that are not explicitly assessed in the DWS: physical safety and absence of stress at work. These two dimensions were added to more broadly cover the safe working conditions dimension of decent work. In the PWT definition of decent work, safe working conditions include physical, mental, interpersonal, and emotional features of work (Duffy et al., 2016). However, the final version of the Safe Working Conditions subscale of the DWS only assesses safety feelings stemming from interactions at work, not from physically secure environments or workload issues. Another reason for adding a job stress dimension was to assess an issue that is becoming critical in the Swiss context (Promotion Santé Suisse, 2017). The three job stress items were formulated as follows: “I feel

I don't have enough time to do a quality job"; "I am constantly under pressure at work"; and "I feel stressed at work." The three items that assessed physical safety at work were the following: "At work, I am sometimes exposed to dangerous situations" (reversed); "At work, I have to be careful not to hurt myself" (reversed); and "At work, I sometimes take risks" (reversed).

2.3.2 Work Volition

Work volition was assessed through the 13-item Work Volition Scale (WVS; Duffy et al., 2012), which is divided into three subscales: Volition (four items; e.g., "I've been able to choose the jobs I wanted"), Financial Constraints (five items; e.g., "Due to my financial situation, I need to take any job I can find"), and Structural Constraints (four items; e.g., "I feel that outside forces have really limited my work and career options"). Respondents are asked to rate each item on a 7-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). Cronbach alphas of the initial instrument validation stressed satisfactory reliabilities: .86 for the Total Scale, .78 for Volition, .81 for Financial Constraints, and .70 for Structural Constraints. The translation of the WVS into French, German, and Italian comprised the same translation/back-translation process undertaken for the DWS.

2.3.3 Job Insecurity

In line with Urbanavičiūtė et al. (2015), job insecurity was assessed through two 4-item scales covering quantitative and qualitative insecurity. The quantitative job insecurity scale measures "the perceived threat to lose one's job" (p. 29; e.g., "I think I might lose my job in the near future"), whereas the qualitative job insecurity scale measures "the perceived threat of experiencing unfavourable changes in working conditions" (p. 30; e.g., "I think my job will change for the worse"). For both instruments, respondents are asked to answer on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (*totally agree*) to 5 (*totally disagree*). In the validation study, Cronbach alphas were .88 for quantitative and .85 for qualitative job insecurity.

2.3.4 Job Satisfaction

We measured job satisfaction with the 5-item job satisfaction scale provided by Judge et al. (1998), including items such as “I find real enjoyment in my work” and “Most days I am enthusiastic about my work.” Individuals respond to items using a 7-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). The scale reliability in Judge et al.’s study was .88.

2.3.5 Life Satisfaction

The 5-item Satisfaction With Life Scale (SWLS; Diener et al., 1985) was used to assess life satisfaction. In the SWLS, respondents are asked to rate items, such as “I am satisfied with my life” and “In most ways my life is close to my ideal” on a 7-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). The internal consistency of the SWLS reported by Diener et al. was .87.

2.3.6 Components of Decent Work

Participants’ perception of decent work components was assessed with the following open-ended question: “‘Decent’ work is employment that meets the minimum acceptable standards for a good life. Given this definition, what components do you feel a job needs to have to be considered ‘decent’ or ‘acceptable’?” The open-ended question was translated into the three national languages (see Tables 1, 2, and 3) and introduced at the end of the online survey of the second step of data collection.

3. Results

3.1 Decent Work Structure and Measurement Invariance in Switzerland

Confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) were performed using maximum likelihood estimation (the variables were close to being normally distributed) to assess the structural validity of the DWS. These analyses were performed using the AMOS statistical package (Arbuckle, 2012). To achieve model identification, regression coefficients of the error terms

over the endogenous variables were fixed to 1. To assess the model fit, we used the χ^2 per degree of freedom (χ^2/df), the goodness of fit index (GFI), the comparative fit index (CFI), the Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), and the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA). A model is considered to have an acceptable fit if the χ^2/df is equal to or below 3 (Kline, 2005); if the GFI, CFI, and TLI values are about .95 or above; and if the RMSEA value is equal or below .06 (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Miles & Shevlin, 1998).

A first second order CFA—15 items, 5 subscales, and a decent work dimension—was associated with very good fit indices, except for GFI that was just below the cutoff value, $\chi^2(85) = 240.41, p < .001, \chi^2/df = 2.82, GFI = .949, CFI = .972, TLI = .966, RMSEA = .055$. In order to replicate the structure identified by Duffy et al. (2017), we subsequently conducted a bifactor model. This model seemed to fit the data better, $\chi^2(75) = 175.33, p < .001, \chi^2/df = 2.34, GFI = .961, CFI = .982, TLI = .975, RMSEA = .047$. However, one error term was associated with a negative variance, suggesting that this model was misspecified and therefore not adequate. Because access to health care is not directly linked with working conditions in Switzerland, the health subscale was removed from the second order model, but this did not lead to a more adequate model, $\chi^2(50) = 185.94, p < .001, \chi^2/df = 3.72, GFI = .950, CFI = .970, TLI = .961, RMSEA = .067$. The alternative Swiss structure that included two additional subscales, stress at work and physical safety, was then considered. However, this model was also associated with poorer fit indices with, $\chi^2(182) = 615.34, p < .001, \chi^2/df = 3.38, GFI = .910, CFI = .942, TLI = .934, RMSEA = .063$, or without the physical safety dimension, $\chi^2(129) = 406.47, p < .001, \chi^2/df = 3.15, GFI = .929, CFI = .958, TLI = .950, RMSEA = .060$. In the Swiss context, the second order structure considering the five original subscales showed the strongest and most parsimonious fit to the data. The items and loadings can be seen in Tables 1, 2, and 3.

The level of invariance across languages and gender was assessed using multigroup

confirmatory factor analyses. To assess each model and each level of invariance—configural, metric, and scalar invariance—model fit statistics were inspected. Moreover, change in the CFI should be less than .01 (Byrne & van de Vijver, 2010; Cheung & Rensvold, 2002), and according to some authors (e.g., Savickas & Porfeli, 2012), any change in RMSEA should be below .05. As indicated in Table 4, all CFIs and TLIs for configural, metric, and scalar invariance were above the cut-off value of .95. GFIs were all slightly below .95 but very similar across models and level on invariance. In all cases, the RMSEAs were very low ($\leq .042$). Concerning the χ^2/df , the values were always clearly below 3. Change in the CFIs between level of invariance were always far below .01. Changes in RMSEAs were also always far below .05. Finally, changes in χ^2 were all very low and nonsignificant. Thus, all of the models seemed to reach scalar invariance, meaning that the scores could be compared across languages and gender in Switzerland.

3.2 Descriptives, Effect of Demographics, and Intercorrelations

All of the internal consistencies of the used scales were acceptable, with values ranging from .73 to .94. The only values below .80 were the consistencies for the safety subscale in all three linguistic regions and for job satisfaction in the Italian-speaking subsample (see Table 5). The values for kurtosis (K) and asymmetry (S) were all in the acceptable range, except the kurtosis value for the health care subscale that was higher than 2 for the German-speaking subsample. In regard to gender differences, a significant but negligible difference was observed for the level of education, $t(602) = 1.97, p = .049, d = .16$, and a small to medium difference was observed for the level of income, $t(556) = -5.60, p < .001, d = .46$, which was lower for women. The other significant gender differences were all associated with a small effect size. This was the case for the quantitative job insecurity, $t(602) = -2.66, p = .008, d = .22$; the DWS subscales Adequate Compensation, $t(602) = -2.55, p = .01, d = .21$, and Complementary Values, $t(602) = 2.53, p = .01, d = .21$, and women

scoring higher on the level of education and Complementary Values and lower on income, quantitative job insecurity, and Adequate Compensation.

Several differences between the three language groups were observed. These groups were different in terms of perceived social class, $F(2, 601) = 7.43, p = .001, \eta^2 = .02$, and income, $F(2, 555) = 8.76, p < .001, \eta^2 = .03$, with the Italian-speaking group reporting lower and the French-speaking group reporting higher perceived social class and income. The Italian-speaking group reported higher and the German-speaking group lower qualitative job insecurity, $F(2, 601) = 6.93, p = .001, \eta^2 = .02$. The German-speaking group scored higher and the French-speaking group scored lower on the DWS, $F(2, 601) = 4.08, p = .02, \eta^2 = .01$, the safety subscale, $F(2, 601) = 5.48, p = .004, \eta^2 = .02$, and health subscale, $F(2, 601) = 13.45, p < .001, \eta^2 = .04$. All these differences were associated with small effect size.

The correlations presented in Table 6 show that age correlated positively with income and, to a lesser extent, with quantitative job insecurity, decent work, and life satisfaction. Perceived social class was highly correlated with level of education and income, as well as with work volition, decent work, and job and life satisfaction. The level of education was correlated with the level of income and work volition. Unemployment history negatively correlated with work volition, decent work, and job and life satisfaction. Finally, job insecurity, work volition, decent work, and job and life satisfaction were all quite strongly intercorrelated. This pattern of correlation was very similar across linguistic groups and gender.

3.3 Job Insecurity, Work Volition, Decent Work, and Job and Life Satisfaction

In a first model, we considered quantitative and qualitative job insecurity as predictors, hypothesizing that this insecurity would affect our outcomes (i.e., job and life satisfaction). This model considered work volition and decent work to be mediators, and decent work was also supposed to mediate the relation between work volition and the

outcomes, as suggested in the PWT (Duffy et al., 2016). In the first model, we also took into account age, gender, perceived social class, level of education, unemployment history, and income as predictors. Forty-four participants preferred to not mention their income, and one did not indicate his age. For this reason, the model was run on a slightly smaller sample ($n = 557$). Perceived social class was especially related to our mediators and outcomes (see Table 6). The correlation between the level of education and unemployment history and our mediators and outcomes were lower, and the correlations between age and gender and our mediators and outcomes were almost negligible ($r \leq .11$). This first model was associated with relatively adequate fit indices, $\chi^2(55) = 156.86, p < .001, \chi^2/df = 2.85, GFI = .971, CFI = .954, TLI = .901, RMSEA = .058$.

In the first model, gender and income were not significantly linked with any of the mediators or outcomes. For this reason, we removed these two demographics from our model. Moreover, the nonsignificant direct links between the predictors and the outcomes were removed, as were the nonsignificant covariations among the predictors. This revised model was associated with better fit indices, $\chi^2(64) = 131.16, p < .001, \chi^2/df = 2.05, GFI = .968, CFI = .965, TLI = .950, RMSEA = .043$ (see Figure 1). This model was then subjected to a multigroup analysis across languages. This multigroup model was also associated with adequate χ^2/df and RMSEA, but GFI, CFI, TLI were slightly below the cut-off values, $\chi^2(192) = 324.90, p < .001, \chi^2/df = 1.69, GFI = .925, CFI = .933, TLI = .905, RMSEA = .035$. Overall, these results suggest that this model was relatively stable across Swiss linguistic regions. Moreover, this analysis suggests that the model reaches metric, $\Delta\chi^2(12) = 19.54, p > .05, \Delta CFI = .003, \Delta RMSEA < .001$, and scalar equivalence, $\Delta\chi^2(26) = 28.28, p > .05, \Delta CFI = .002, \Delta RMSEA < .001$.

3.4 Components of Decent Work

Qualitative analyses were performed on the 104 answers to the open-ended question included in the second step of data collection. The analysis procedure comprised an adaptation of the consensual qualitative research–modified procedure (CQR-M; Spangler, Liu, & Hill, 2012). CQR-M is a discovery-oriented form of consensual qualitative research, specifically developed “for use with large samples and relatively brief, simple, qualitative data” (p. 270). The adaptation of the CQR-M procedure implied three stages. In the first stage, the first, second, and third authors went through, respectively, the French, German, and Italian answers to the open-ended question, and they separately identified categories of perceived components of decent work by grouping together similar answers and reducing them to distinct categories. They then met to share their first categorizations and to establish consensus about the categories of perceived components of decent work within the whole material. The labels and definitions of the categories were translated into English and reported on a codebook. In the second stage, two coders for each linguistic region (i.e., the three first authors plus three colleagues who spoke French, German, or Italian) separately coded all of the answers given in their own language, on the basis of the codebook. Each dyad of coders then met to compare the coding, establish consensus in case of any disagreement, and identify exemplary quotes within each category. This procedure of double coding with three new coders was considered an adequate alternative to coders rotation, which is suggested for CQR but was impossible in our study because of the language barrier. The third stage comprised assembling the coded material of the whole subsample, adapting the categories, calculating frequencies for each category, and selecting exemplary quotes. This last stage was led by the first, second, and third authors.

The analysis of the open-ended question stressed the existence of four main categories of components associated with decent work, and each was divided into two subcategories (see Table 7). The first main category referred to Positive Employment Conditions, which were

mentioned by four out of five participants. This category was separated into two subcategories. First, positive employment conditions depend on adequate Compensation, that is, the likelihood to receive a fair salary allowing material security, or the opportunity to have money for personal life. An example of an answer is the following: “To have a salary with which, in addition to paying rent and groceries, I can save a little money for the unexpected and leisure.” The second subcategory referred to Workload and Hours, emphasizing the importance of not being stressed or over- or underemployed, as well as having enough free and rest time and a balance between work and personal life in terms of time involvement. One participant provided the following answer: “To have a working time distributed correctly in the week (no more than 8h/day and 40h/week).”

The second category referred to the Attractive Work Context and was mentioned by about three quarters of the sample. The first subcategory within this category covered Relationships at Work, which were expected to be safe, respectful, and honest. This subcategory focused on the importance of working in a positive climate, getting on well with colleagues, and being recognized by superiors. A participant stated the following: “A fair treatment by colleagues and the hierarchy, no discrimination.” The second subcategory of an Attractive Work Context refers to interesting Contents of Work, emphasizing the importance of loving tasks or activities within the job and working in a favorable setting, one characterized by clear goals, variety, prestige, social recognition, or autonomy. An example of answer emphasizing a favorable work setting was the following: “To have some leeway to organize and carry out my professional activities.”

The third main category of decent work components was Work Security and was evoked by more than one-third of the participants. The first Work Security subcategory was Physical Security—that is, the need to feel protected and safe in the workplace, not having the impression of being in danger. For example, a participant stated, “A job that guarantees

physical security, that is not life-threatening.” Employment Security is a different form of security need, and in our study, it was associated with a second subcategory. It referred to the possibility of relying on job stability—that is, not fearing the loss of a job and benefiting from job guarantees in the long-term, through permanent contracts or social- or union-related protection. For example, a participant stated, “Stability: not having to constantly look for the next job because of fixed-term contracts.”

The fourth main category of decent work components covered Valued Personal Outcomes of Work and was mentioned by almost one out of three participants. Meaning at Work was the first subcategory of valued personal outcomes: work was regarded as decent as long as it was perceived as meaningful, useful, and in line with the worker’s personal, family, or community values. For example, a participant stated, “A feeling of usefulness to myself and to others.” The second subcategory within valued personal outcomes of work referred to the possibility to Grow at and through Work. A decent job should then allow personal development (i.e., through a work setting that allows self-fulfillment and self-realization outside the work context) or professional development (i.e., career or advancement opportunities or the possibility to learn new competences and skills at work). For example, one participant stated, “The possibility to have training opportunities.”

4. Discussion

The first aim of our study was to adapt and examine the psychometric properties of the Swiss version of the DWS (Duffy et al., 2017) in the three national languages of Switzerland: French, German, and Italian. According to the results, the translated scales were valid measurements for assessing decent work in the Swiss context. The two specific additional subscales, stress and physical safety, did not improve the original DWS and were therefore not considered further. In addition, our findings showed measurement invariance across gender and the three national languages. Drawing from the PWT (Duffy et al., 2016), our

second aim was to assess antecedents and outcomes of decent work in the Swiss context. The different models that we tested showed the following results: (1) Work volition fully mediated the link between level of education, unemployment history and quantitative job insecurity, and decent work; (2) age, perceived social class, and qualitative job security predicted decent work, this association being partially mediated through work volition, except for age; (3) both work volition and decent work predicted job and life satisfaction; (4) all links between the predictors and job satisfaction were fully mediated through decent work or work volition; and (5) age and social class were the only direct predictors of life satisfaction, with a small association. Hence, the relation between our predictors (age, perceived social class, level of education, unemployment history, and job insecurity) and outcomes (job and life satisfaction) was almost fully mediated through work volition or decent work, in parallel or in a sequential way. In regard to the third aim of our study, qualitative analyses highlighted the existence of four distinct categories of components associated with decent work: an Attractive Work Context (depending on the Contents of Work and Relationships at Work), valued personal outcomes (i.e., the opportunity to grow and to do meaningful work), positive employment conditions (i.e., adequate compensation, workload, and hours), and work security (physical and employment security).

4.1 Decent Work Scale in Switzerland

The original structure of the DWS was confirmed in the Swiss context in the French, German, and Italian versions, even when including the subscale Access to Health Care, which in Switzerland is independent of employers. It was quite surprising to observe that health protection coming from the state or private insurances was linked with decent work. This result might imply that having access to health protection—that is, feeling safe from the viewpoint of health—is determinant for qualifying work as decent, regardless of where this protection comes from.

The stability of the DWS structure across gender and national languages tends to indicate that despite gender differences and regional specificities, women, men, and French-, German-, and Italian-speaking workers in Switzerland share a common context regarding decent work. Measurement invariance across gender and languages legitimize the establishment of single national norms for the DWS (Rossier & Duarte, in press). The Swiss version of the DWS can be used to assess decent work among workers in Switzerland and for cross-cultural research, confirming the solidity of this instrument across cultures (Isik et al., 2018). The Swiss scales also have the potential to be used to assess decent work in Germany, Italy, and French-speaking countries. However, given the specificities of the Swiss cultural and labor market contexts, the German, French, and Italian versions of the DWS should be adapted and validated within each country, particularly concerning the Access to Health Care dimension. Moreover, country-specific norms may be considered.

4.2 Antecedents and Outcomes of Decent Work

Having experienced unemployment in the past, belonging to a low social class, and anticipating job-quality deterioration or job loss all negatively affected participants' "sense of choice in their career" (i.e., work volition; see Duffy et al., 2018, p. 280) and their perception of doing a decent job. Lack of volition at work and "indecent" work, in turn, predicted lower job and life satisfaction. Thus, our findings are consistent with PWT assumptions (Duffy et al., 2016), which suggest that marginalization and socioeconomic constraints (here: social class, level of education, unemployment, and job insecurity) prevent access to decent work, which in turn threatens work fulfillment and well-being (here: job and life satisfaction). They also confirm the existence of mediating variables, such as work volition, that filter the association between socioeconomic constraints or marginalization and decent work. Our results also support empirical research that was conducted in other contexts and with other populations and they prove not only that marginalization and economic constraints negatively

predict work volition and access to decent work but also that work volition mediates the negative association between socioeconomic constraints or marginalization and decent work (Allan et al., 2018; Douglass et al., 2017; Duffy et al., 2018; Tokar & Kaut, 2018).

Our findings highlight the crucial role of both contextual or social and psychological factors on access to decent work and consequently on general and professional well-being, with psychological factors, such as work volition, functioning as mediators. Interestingly, work volition fully mediated the negative association between unemployment experience or quantitative job insecurity and decent work, whereas it only partially mediated the association between social class or qualitative job insecurity and decent work. A difference between these two groups of predictors could explain this result. Experiencing unemployment and fearing the loss of a job seem to refer to quantitative aspects (i.e. the fact of having or not having a job). On the other hand, social class and mainly anticipating job deterioration refer more to the qualitative aspects of work (i.e., the characteristics of a job, such as wage and working conditions). In the second case, the predictors of decent work are closer to the DWS dimensions (Duffy et al., 2017) than in the first case and could explain the existence of direct associations, such as those between income and the DWS subscale Safe Working Conditions and between qualitative job insecurity and the DWS subscale Adequate Compensation. However, the key role of work volition might depend on the characteristic of our sample, privileged workers being slightly overrepresented. The mediation of volition might then be weaker in a less privileged population.

In regard to the outcomes of decent work, our research is among the rare studies based on the PWT that investigated the effects of decent work on work fulfillment and well-being (Kim et al., 2017). We pointed out that both decent work and work volition directly predicted job and life satisfaction. Moreover, our results suggest a spillover effect between the work domain and general life satisfaction. They also shed new light on the PWT in the sense that

work volition directly predicted life and job satisfaction. This means that workers might be satisfied with their jobs and their lives if they feel capable of making choices in their careers (Duffy et al., 2012), regardless of the characteristics of the actual jobs they are doing.

4.3 Decent Work Components and the Psychology of Working Theory

The categories and subcategories of components of decent work deduced from the participants' answers to the open-ended question can be compared with the decent work characteristics within the PWT (Duffy et al. 2016, p. 130). With the exception of health care issues, which in Switzerland are independent from work, our (sub)categories covered all the characteristics of decent work within the PWT: The subcategories Relationships at Work and Physical Security referred to the first characteristics of decent work—namely, physical and interpersonally safe working conditions. The subcategory Workload and Hours was close to the characteristic hours that allow for free time and adequate rest. Meaning at Work partly covered the decent work characteristic of complementary values. Last, the Compensation subcategory matched the fourth characteristic of decent work within the PWT (i.e., adequate compensation). Moreover, the participants' answers might complete and refine what is behind the characteristics of decent work addressed in the PWT. For example, in regard to safe working conditions, participants evoked not only physical and interpersonal security issues but also employment security issues, thereby highlighting the importance of job stability, employment guarantees, and social protection (subcategory Employment Security). In regard to complementary values, participants mentioned the importance of doing jobs that not only were consistent with the values they shared in their families and communities but also were somehow in line with their own values, giving them the impression of doing jobs that were meaningful (subcategory Meaning at Work).

Three subcategories of perceived components of decent work are not addressed by the decent work characteristics within the PWT: Contents of Work, Growth at and through Work,

and Employment Security. Moreover, as already stated, the subcategory Meaning at Work referred not only to complementary values but also to the importance of doing meaningful work. When compared with the PWT model as a whole—i.e., including the antecedents and consequences of decent work—these additional components of decent work seemed to refer to the outcomes of decent work in terms of the needs that work is expected to satisfy: survival, social connection, and self-determination needs. In fact, our first and third categories of perceived components of decent work (Positive Employment Conditions and Work Security) directly addressed survival needs. Survival is guaranteed not only through Compensation, decent Workload and Hours, and Physical Security, but also through Employment Security. Additionally, our second category (Attractive Work Context) seemed to be linked with social connection needs. Positive and safe Relationships at Work as well as job contents that are perceived as socially useful—which was put forward among valued Contents of Work—actually contribute to making workers feel recognized and connected with others both within and outside the workplace. Finally, self-determination needs were mainly addressed in the second and fourth categories of perceived decent work components (Attractive Work Context and Valued Personal Outcomes of Work). Positive working contexts—in particular, attractive Contents of Work, such as interesting tasks and a favorable work setting—actually contribute to intrinsic motivation at work, which is associated with self-determination. According to Duffy et al. (2016), when internalized by workers, extrinsically motivated activities can also lead to self-determination. Such is the case for jobs that, regardless of their content, lead to valued personal outcomes, such as the opportunity to Grow at and through Work—that is, to develop as a worker and as a person—and to find Meaning at Work.

The qualitative results seem to suggest an overlap between the notions of decent and meaningful work and to confirm the pertinence of a psychological perspective on decent work

(Blustein et al., 2016, 2017; Pouyaud, 2016). Such a perspective could add to the characteristics of decent work the importance of fostering jobs that are meaningful, that provide employees the opportunity to develop within and outside the working sphere, and that are stable and secure. Our results also confirm the pertinence of using the DWS to assess decent work. They suggest the possibility of completing it with tools that can assess additional components that are related to the three types of needs that work should satisfy, such as the quality of the work context, the job content, the degree to which a job enables development, the potential to find meaning at work and to realize personal values, and the long-term guarantees and perspectives provided.

4.4 Implications for practice

In line with our findings, vocational psychology and career counseling interventions that are aimed at promoting clients' fulfillment at work and job satisfaction could be of three sorts. First, because decent work directly predicted job satisfaction, counselors who intervene with working or nonworking adults should consider assessing and fostering its five dimensions: safe working conditions, health care protection, just rewards, adequate work schedules, and complementary personal and organizational values. In other words, counselors should be aware of the importance of promoting rights and protection at work, either by directly intervening at the organizational level or by helping clients negotiate decent working conditions (Blustein et al., 2018). These interventions might also include additional goals, such as fostering employment security, meaningful work, and opportunities to develop at and through work.

Second, because socioeconomic factors predicted access to decent work, vocational psychology and career counseling might also aim to influence contextual processes and variables by promoting social justice and struggling against insecure or precarious forms of work, inequalities, and marginalization mechanisms. Instead of standard individual career

counseling interventions, these goals can be reached through systemic and advocacy interventions (Kozan & Blustein, 2018). Actions can be taken in coordination with key community actors, associations, and national and international organizations (such as unions and associations for the defense of marginalized groups), with the aim of fostering social dialogue and collective empowerment.

Third, according to our results, work volition partially or fully mediated the relation between predictors and outcomes of decent work, as well as the relation between predictors and decent work. Consistent with the critical role of work volition, counselors should also intervene on workers' (and people who desire to work) agency in the face of constraints (Duffy et al., 2012). Interventions focused on clients' empowerment (Richardson, 2000) and critical consciousness (Watts, Diemer, & Voight, 2011) seem appropriate for this kind of goal. All in all, as suggested by Duffy et al. (2018), "it is important that scholars and practitioners expand their professional roles to view themselves as advocates in addition to scientists and practitioners" (p. 290).

4.5 Limitations and future directions

This study had some limitations that should be taken into account when its findings are interpreted, and those limitations may lead to various directions for future research. First, our model did not assess the causality effects between predictors and outcomes. Longitudinal studies should be conducted to test whether the relation between antecedents and outcomes of decent work imply and can be considered to be causal influences. In the same vein, additional, in-depth qualitative studies could complete our understanding of these relations by focusing on the processes and subjective experiences of decent and indecent work. Second, we chose a limited number of variables within the PWT (Duffy et al., 2016) and therefore omitted other variables that could have played a critical role if added to the models that we tested. For example, it would be interesting to assess the possible mediating role of meaningful work and

needs provided by work on the relation between decent work and life and job satisfaction (Allan et al., 2016, 2018; Kim et al., 2017). Other moderator (e.g., career adaptability; see Savickas & Porfeli, 2012) and mediator factors (e.g., critical consciousness; see Watts et al., 2011) within and outside the PWT could also be added to obtain a more complete view of the processes underlying decent work. Third, because our study mainly focused on decent work, we oriented our analyses toward the adaptation of the DWS in the Swiss context. Further investigations could be conducted on the adaptation and validation on the WVS and its three subscales in the Swiss context—which, according to our findings, deserve particular attention. Fourth, our sampling procedure did not consider targeted inclusion criteria other than being a worker in Switzerland. Thus, research is needed to deepen the understanding of decent work challenges in the Swiss context, in order to compare workers in different economic sectors and to study the issues of specific at-risk or discriminated populations, such as migrants (Atitsogbe, Udayar, & Durante, in press) and senior workers (Moreau-Gruet, 2014). Fifth, our qualitative analyses of the open-ended question indicated that decent work components might be more complex and cover additional key dimensions than those assessed in the DWS. The DWS could then be completed with new scales that assess, for example, meaningful work, intrinsic job characteristics, and work perspectives in terms of job security and opportunities for personal and professional development.

5. Conclusion

In this study, the DWS was adapted for the Swiss context and three languages. The three-language versions reached measurement invariance, suggesting that the contexts of the three linguistic regions of Switzerland are similar. Moreover, we provided empirical support for the PWT (Duffy et al., 2016) by studying the antecedents and consequences of decent work, confirming that both macrolevel and individual-level factors affect access to decent work. In particular, perceived social status, level of education, unemployment experiences,

job insecurity, and work volition predicted the participants' perceptions of doing decent work, which in turn was associated not only with job satisfaction but also with satisfaction with life. Ultimately, our findings highlight that accessing decent work might be a critical issue also within a highly performing labor market. In Switzerland, as in other cultural and economic contexts, vocational psychologists and career counselors have the potential to play a key role in supporting clients' work volition, promoting the equality of chances in the labor market, and fostering universal access to decent work (Blustein et al., 2018).

References

- Allan, B. A., Autin, K. L., & Duffy, R., D. (2016). Self-determination and meaningful work: Exploring socioeconomic constraints. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 7, 71.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2016.00071>
- Allan, B. A., Tebbe, E. A., Bouchard, L. M., & Duffy, R., D. (2018) Access to decent and meaningful work in a sexual minority population. *Journal of Career Assessment*. Advance online publication. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/1069072718758064>
- Arbuckle, J. L. (2012). *AMOS (version 21)*, SPSS, Chicago, IL.
- Atitsogbe, K. A., Udayar, S., & Durante, F. (in press). Orientation et insertion en contexte migratoire [Career counseling and work integration in the context of migration]. In J. Masdonati, K. Massoudi & J. Rossier (Eds.), *Repères pour l'orientation* [Landmarks for career counseling]. Lausanne, Switzerland: Antipodes.
- Blustein, D. L. (Ed.). (2013). *The Oxford handbook of the psychology of working*. New-York, NY: Oxford University Press. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/oxfordhb/9780199758791.001.0001>.
- Blustein, D. L., Kenny, M. E., Di Fabio, A., & Guichard, J. (2018) Expanding the impact of the Psychology of Working: Engaging psychology in the struggle for decent work and human rights. *Journal of Career Assessment*. Advance online publication.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/1069072718774002>
- Blustein, D. L., Masdonati, J., & Rossier, J. (2017). *Psychology and the International Labor Organization: The role of psychology in the Decent Work Agenda*. International Labor Organization. Retrieved from
http://www.ilo.org/global/research/publications/WCMS_561013/lang--en/index.htm

- Blustein, D. L., Olle, C., Connors-Kellgren, A., & Diamonti, A. J. (2016). Decent Work: A psychological perspective. *Frontiers in Psychology, 7*, 407.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2016.00407>
- Brynjolfsson, E., & McAfee, A. (2014). *The second machine age: Work, progress, and prosperity in a time of brilliant technologies*. New York, NY: W. W. Norton.
- Byrne, B. M., & van de Vijver, F. J. (2010). Testing for measurement and structural equivalence in large-scale cross-cultural studies: Addressing the issue of nonequivalence. *International Journal of Testing, 10*, 107-132.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/15305051003637306>
- Cheung, G. W., & Rensvold, R. B. (2002). Evaluating goodness-of-fit indexes for testing measurement invariance. *Structural Equation Modeling: A Multidisciplinary Journal, 9*, 233-255. http://dx.doi.org/10.1207/S15328007SEM0902_5
- Department of Economic Affairs, Education and Research. (2018). *Recours aux mesures du marché du travail de l'assurance-chômage lors de reorientations professionnelles d'ordre structurel* [Use of unemployment insurance labor market measures for structural professional changes]. Bern, Switzerland: The Federal Department of Economic Affairs, Education and Research.
- Diener, E., Emmons, R. A., Larsen, R. J., & Griffin, S. (1985). The satisfaction with life scale. *Journal of Personality Assessment, 49*, 71-75.
https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327752jpa4901_13
- Douglass, R. P., Velez, B. L., Conlin, S. E., Duffy, R. D., & England, J. W. (2017). Examining the Psychology of Working Theory: Decent work among sexual minorities. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*. Advance online publication.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/cou0000212>

Duffy, R. D., Allan, B. A., England, J. W., Blustein, D. L., Autin, K. L., Douglass, R. P. . . .

Santos, E. J. R. (2017). The development and initial validation of the Decent Work Scale.

Journal of Counseling Psychology, 64, 206–221. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/cou0000191>

Duffy, R. D., Blustein, D. L., Diemer, M. A., & Autin, K. L. (2016). The psychology of working theory. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 63, 127–148.

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/cou0000140>

Duffy, R. D., Diemer, M. A., Perry, J. C., Laurenzi, C., & Torrey, C. L. (2012). The construction and initial validation of the Work Volition Scale. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 80, 400-411. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2011.04.002>

Duffy, R. D., Velez, B. L., England, J. W., Autin, K. L., Douglass, R. P., Allan, B. A., & Blustein, D. L. (2018). An examination of the Psychology of Working Theory with racially and ethnically diverse employed adults. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 65, 280-293. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/cou0000247>

Ecoplan (2017). *Die Entwicklung atypisch-prekärer Arbeitsverhältnisse in der Schweiz: Nachfolgestudie zu den Studien von 2003 und 2010, unter Berücksichtigung neuer Arbeitsformen* [The development of atypical and precarious working conditions in Switzerland: Follow-up of the 2003 and 2010 studies taking into account new forms of work.]. Bern, Switzerland: State Secretariat for Economic Affairs.

Egli, S., Mayer, B., & Mast, F. (2017, September). *Cultural differences and similarities among German-, French- and Italian-speaking Switzerland and neighboring countries.*

Paper presented at the 15th Swiss Psychological Society Conference, Lausanne,

Switzerland. Retrieved from

https://boris.unibe.ch/114429/1/Presentation_SPSconference_pub.pdf

- Eichhorst, W., Rodríguez-Planas, N., Schmidl, R., & Zimmermann, K. F. (2015). A road map to vocational education and training in industrialized countries. *ILR Review*, *68*, 314-337. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0019793914564963>
- Federal Statistical Office. (2017). *Switzerland's population 2016*. Neuchâtel, Switzerland: Federal Statistical Office. Retrieved from <https://www.bfs.admin.ch/bfs/en/home/statistics/population/effectif-change/population.assetdetail.3902101.html>
- Frey, C. B., & Osborne, M. A. (2017). The future of employment: How susceptible are jobs to computerisation? *Technological Forecasting and Social Change*, *114*, 254–280. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.techfore.2016.08.019>
- Hirschi, A. (2018). The fourth industrial revolution: Issues and implications for career research and practice. *The Career Development Quarterly*, *66*, 192-204. <https://doi.org/10.1002/cdq.12142>
- Hu, L.-t., & Bentler, P. M. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural Equation Modeling: A Multidisciplinary Journal*, *6*, 1-55. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/10705519909540118>
- International Labor Organization. (2008). *World of work report 2008: Income inequalities in the age of financial globalization*. Retrieved from http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/@dgreports/@dcomm/@publ/documents/publication/wcms_100354.pdf
- International Labor Organization. (2013). *Decent work indicators: Guidelines for procedures and users of statistical and legal framework indicators* (2nd Ed.). Geneva, Switzerland: International Labor Office Retrieved from http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---dgreports/---integration/documents/publication/wcms_229374.pdf

International Labor Organization. (2017). *World employment social outlook: Trends 2017*.

Geneva, Switzerland: International Labor Office. Retrieved from

<http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---dgreports/---dcomm/--->

[publ/documents/publication/wcms_541211.pdf](http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---dgreports/---dcomm/---publ/documents/publication/wcms_541211.pdf)

Isik, E., Kozan, S., & Isik, A. N. (2018). Cross-cultural validation of the Turkish version of the Decent Work Scale. *Journal of Career Assessment*. Advance online publication

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/1069072718763636>

Judge, T. A., Locke, E. A., Durham, C. C., & Kluger, A. N. (1998). Dispositional effects on job and life satisfaction: The role of core evaluations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 83,

17–34. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.83.1.17>

Kim, S. Y., Fouad, N., Maeda, H., Xie, H., & Nazan, N. (2017). Midlife work and

psychological well-being: A test of the Psychology of Working Theory. *Journal of Career Assessment*. Advance online publication.

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/1069072717714538>

Kline, R. B. (2005). *Principles and practice of structural equation modeling* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: The Guilford Press.

Koekemoer, E., Le Roux Fourie, H., & Ilyna Jorgensen, L. (2018). Exploring subjective career success among blue-collar workers: Motivators that matter. *Journal of Career Development*. Advance online publication. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0894845318763942>

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0894845318763942>

Kossen, C., & McIlveen, P. (2018). Unemployment from the perspective of the Psychology of Working. *Journal of Career Development*, 45, 474-488.

<https://doi.org/10.1177/0894845317711043>

Kozan, S., & Blustein, D. L. (2018). Implementing social change: A qualitative analysis of counseling psychologists' engagement in advocacy. *The Counseling Psychologist*.

Advance online publication. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0011000018756882>

- Miles, J., & Shevlin, M. (1998). Effects of sample size, model specification and factor loadings on the GFI in confirmatory factor analysis. *Personality and Individual Differences, 25*, 85-90. [https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0191-8869\(98\)00055-5](https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0191-8869(98)00055-5)
- Moreau-Gruet, F. (2014). *Monitorage de la santé psychique, axé principalement sur les personnes âgées et le stress au travail Actualisation 2014* [Monitoring of mental health, focusing mainly on the elderly and stress at work. Actualization 2014]. Bern, Switzerland: Promotion Santé Suisse. Retrieved from <https://promotionsante.ch/bases/publications/sante-psychique.html>
- Nathani, C., Hellmüller, P., Rieser, C., Hoff, O., & Nesarajah, S. (2017). *Ursachen und Auswirkungen des Strukturwandels im Schweizer Arbeitsmarkt* [Causes and effects of structural changes in the Swiss labor market]. Bern, Switzerland: State Secretariat for Economic Affairs.
- Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development. (2014). *Working better with age: Switzerland – Assessment and recommendations*. Retrieved from http://www.oecd.org/els/emp/AR_SWITZERLAND.pdf
- Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development. (2017). *OECD employment outlook 2017*. Paris, France: OECD. http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/empl_outlook-2017-en
- Pouyau, J. (2016). For a psychosocial approach to decent work. *Frontiers in Psychology, 7*, 422. <http://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2016.00422>
- Promotion Santé Suisse. (2017). *Job Stress Index 2016: Indicateurs relatifs au stress chez les personnes actives en Suisse* [Job Stress Index 2016: Indicators of stress in active people in Switzerland]. Retrieved from https://promotionsante.ch/assets/public/documents/fr/5-grundlagen/publikationen/bgm/faktenblaetter/Feuille_d_information_017_PSCH_2016-08_-_Job_Stress_Index_2016.pdf

- Richardson, M. S. (2000). A new perspective for counselors: From career ideologies to empowerment through work and relationships practices. In A. Collin, & R. A. Young (Eds.), *The future of career* (pp. 197–211). New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.
- Rossier, J., & Duarte, M. E. (in press). Testing and assessment in an international context : Cross-and multi-cultural issues. In J. Athanasou & H. Perera (Eds.), *International handbook of career guidance* (2nd ed.). New York/Heidelberg: Springer Science.
- Savickas, M. L., & Porfeli, E. J. (2012). Career Adapt-Abilities Scale: Construction, reliability, and measurement equivalence across 13 countries. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 80*, 661-673. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2012.01.011>
- State Secretariat for Economic Affairs (2018). *Arbeitslosigkeit in der Schweiz 2017* [Unemployment in Switzerland 2017]. Bern, Switzerland: State Secretariat for Economic Affairs.
- Spangler, P. T., Liu, J., & Hill, C. E. (2012). Consensual qualitative research for simple qualitative data: An introduction to CQR-M. In C. E. Hill (Ed.), *Consensual qualitative research: A practical resource for investigating social science phenomena* (pp. 269–284). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Tokar, D. M., & Kaut, K. P. (2018). Predictors of decent work among workers with Chiari malformation: An empirical test of the psychology of working theory. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 106*, 126-137. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2018.01.002>
- Urbanavičiūtė, I., Bagdžiūnienė, D., Lazauskaitė-Zabielskė, J., Vander Elst, T., & De Witte, H. (2015). The role of career factors in qualitative and quantitative job insecurity: A study in different organizational contexts. *International Journal of Psychology: A Biopsychosocial Approach, 16*, 23–45. <http://dx.doi.org/10.7220/2345-024X.16.2>
- van Widenfelt, B. M., Treffers, P. D. A., de Beurs, E., Siebelink, B. M., & Koudijs, E. (2005). Translation and cross-cultural adaptation of assessment instruments used in psychological

research with children and families. *Clinical Child and Family Psychology Review*, 8, 135-147. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10567-005-4752-1>

Walter, P., Bläuer Herrmann, A., Cangemi, V., Murier, T., Perrenoud, S., Reutter, R., Saucy, F., & Schmassmann, S. (2017). *Indicateurs du marché du travail 2017* [Labor market indicators 2017]. Neuchâtel, Switzerland: Federal Statistical Office.

Watts, R. J., Diemer, M. A., & Voight, A. M. (2011). Critical consciousness: Current status and future directions. *New Directions for Child and Adolescent Development*, 134, 43–57. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/cd.310>

What about Switzerland? (2018). Retrieved from <https://www.hofstede-insights.com/country/switzerland>

Table 1

English and French versions of the DWS items, and factor loadings

English version factors name and items	French version factors name and items	Loadings of the French version	
		1 st order	2 nd order
Factor 1: Safe Working Conditions	Facteur 1: Conditions de Travail Sécuritaires		.69
1. I feel emotionally safe interacting with people at work.	1. Dans mes interactions au travail, je me sens en sécurité sur le plan affectif.	.74	
2. At work, I feel safe from emotional or verbal abuse of any kind.	2. Au travail, je me sens à l'abri de toute forme d'abus.	.92	
3. I feel physically safe interacting with people at work.	3. Au travail, je me sens à l'abri d'abus physiques.	.60	
Factor 2: Access to Health Care	Facteur 2 : Accès à des Prestations de Santé		.38
4. I get good healthcare benefits from my country/government.	4. Le système suisse de santé offre une bonne couverture.	.92	
5. I have a good healthcare plan provided by my country/government.	5. L'assurance obligatoire des soins suisse offre de bonnes prestations de santé.	.88	
6. My country/government provides acceptable options for healthcare.	6. Les options offertes par le système suisse de santé sont acceptables.	.74	
Factor 3: Adequate Compensation	Facteur 3 : Rémunération Adéquate		.34
7. I am not properly paid for my work. (r)	7. Je ne suis pas correctement payé-e pour mon travail. (r)	.88	
8. I do not feel I am paid enough based on my qualifications and experience. (r)	8. Ma rémunération n'est pas suffisante au vu de mes qualifications et de mon expérience. (r)	.90	
9. I am rewarded adequately for my work.	9. Mon travail est rémunéré adéquatement.	.80	
Factor 4: Free Time and Rest	Facteur 4 : Temps Libre et Repos		.51
10. I do not have enough time for non-work activities. (r)	10. Je n'ai pas assez de temps pour les activités extra-professionnelles. (r)	.73	
11. I have no time to rest during the work week. (r)	11. Je n'ai pas le temps de me reposer pendant la semaine. (r)	.91	
12. I have free time during the work week.	12. J'ai du temps libre pendant la semaine.	.77	
Factor 5: Complementary Values	Facteur 5 : Valeurs Congruentes		.57
13. The values of my organization match my family values.	13. Les valeurs de mon organisation correspondent à mes valeurs familiales.	.91	
14. My organization's values align with my family values.	14. Les valeurs de mon organisation s'alignent avec mes valeurs familiales.	.94	
15. The values of my organization match the values within my community.	15. Les valeurs de mon organisation concordent avec les valeurs de ma communauté.	.76	
Open-ended question: "Decent" work is employment that meets the minimum acceptable standards for a good life. Given this definition, what components do you feel a job needs to have to be considered "decent" or "acceptable"?	Question ouverte: Un travail "décent" est un travail qui répond aux exigences minimales acceptables pour une bonne vie. Considérant cette définition, quelles sont selon vous les composantes qu'un travail devrait avoir pour être considéré comme "décent" ou "acceptable"?		

Table 2

English and German versions of the DWS items, and factor loadings

English version factors name and items	German version factors name and items	Loadings of the German version	
		1 st order	2 nd order
Factor 1: Safe Working Conditions	Faktor 1: Sicherheit bei der Arbeit		.79
1. I feel emotionally safe interacting with people at work.	1. Ich fühle mich emotional sicher, wenn ich mit Leuten bei der Arbeit zu tun habe.	.66	
2. At work, I feel safe from emotional or verbal abuse of any kind.	2. Bei der Arbeit fühle ich mich sicher vor emotionaler oder verbaler Belästigung jeglicher Art.	.83	
3. I feel physically safe interacting with people at work.	3. Bei der Arbeit fühle mich sicher vor körperlicher Belästigung.	.63	
Factor 2: Access to Health Care	Faktor 2 : Zugang zur Gesundheitsversorgung		.35
4. I get good healthcare benefits from my country/government.	4. Die Schweiz bietet mir eine gute Gesundheitsversorgung.	.89	
5. I have a good healthcare plan provided by my country/government.	5. Die obligatorische Krankenversicherung in der Schweiz bietet mir gute Leistungen.	.82	
6. My country/government provides acceptable options for healthcare.	6. Die angebotenen Optionen im Gesundheitswesen der Schweiz sind akzeptabel.	.64	
Factor 3: Adequate Compensation	Faktor 3 : Ausreichende Entlohnung		.51
7. I am not properly paid for my work. (r)	7. Ich werde nicht angemessen bezahlt für meine Arbeit (r)	.89	
8. I do not feel I am paid enough based on my qualifications and experience. (r)	8. Ich habe das Gefühl, nicht ausreichend bezahlt zu werden, gemessen an meinen Qualifikationen und meiner Arbeitserfahrung. (r)	.89	
9. I am rewarded adequately for my work.	9. Ich werde angemessen für meine Arbeit entlohnt.	.93	
Factor 4: Free Time and Rest	Faktor 4 : Freizeit und Erholung		.45
10. I do not have enough time for non-work activities. (r)	10. Ich habe nicht genug Zeit für Aktivitäten ausserhalb der Arbeit. (r)	.72	
11. I have no time to rest during the work week. (r)	11. Ich habe während der Arbeitswoche keine Zeit, mich zu erholen. (r)	.96	
12. I have free time during the work week.	12. Ich habe Freizeit während der Arbeitswoche.	.79	
Factor 5: Complementary Values	Faktor 5 : Kongruente Werte		.57
13. The values of my organization match my family values.	13. Die Werte meiner Organisation entsprechen denen meiner Familie.	.95	
14. My organization's values align with my family values.	14. Die Werte meiner Organisation gehen mit meinen familiären Wertvorstellungen einher.	.97	
15. The values of my organization match the values within my community.	15. Die Werte meiner Organisation entsprechen denen meines sozialen Umfeldes.	.85	
Open-ended question: "Decent" work is employment that meets the	Offene Frage: "Würdevolle" Arbeit ist eine Arbeit, welche die		

minimum acceptable standards for a good life. Given this definition, what components do you feel a job needs to have to be considered “decent” or “acceptable”?

Mindestanforderungen an ein gutes Leben erfüllt. Welche Aspekte müssen bei dieser Definition Ihrer Meinung nach erfüllt sein, damit eine Arbeit als “würdevoll” oder “akzeptabel” angesehen werden kann?

ACCEPTED MANUSCRIPT

Table 3

English and Italian versions of the DWS items, and factor loadings

English version factors name and items	Italian version factors name and items	Loadings of the Italian version	
		1 st order	2 nd order
Factor 1: Safe Working Conditions	Fattore 1: Condizioni di Lavoro Sicure		.77
1. I feel emotionally safe interacting with people at work.	1. Mi sento emotivamente al sicuro interagendo con le persone sul posto di lavoro.	.73	
2. At work, I feel safe from emotional or verbal abuse of any kind.	2. Al lavoro, mi sento al sicuro da abusi emotivi o verbali di qualsiasi tipo.	.85	
3. I feel physically safe interacting with people at work.	3. Mi sento fisicamente al sicuro interagendo con le persone sul posto di lavoro.	.64	
Factor 2: Access to Health Care	Fattore 2: Accesso a Prestazioni Sanitarie		.33
4. I get good healthcare benefits from my country/government.	4. Il sistema sanitario svizzero offre una buona copertura.	.92	
5. I have a good healthcare plan provided by my country/government.	5. L'assicurazione obbligatoria delle cure svizzera offre buone prestazioni sanitarie.	.89	
6. My country/government provides acceptable options for healthcare.	6. Le opzioni offerte dal sistema sanitario svizzero sono accettabili.	.70	
Factor 3: Adequate Compensation	Fattore 3: Remunerazione Adeguata		.64
7. I am not properly paid for my work. (r)	7. Non sono adeguatamente pagato per il mio lavoro (r)	.96	
8. I do not feel I am paid enough based on my qualifications and experience. (r)	8. Non sono pagato abbastanza rispetto alle mie qualifiche e alla mia esperienza. (r)	.96	
9. I am rewarded adequately for my work.	9. Sono remunerato adeguatamente per il mio lavoro.	.79	
Factor 4: Free Time and Rest	Fattore 4: Tempo Libero e Riposo		.47
10. I do not have enough time for non-work activities. (r)	10. Non ho abbastanza tempo per attività non lavorative. (r)	.79	
11. I have no time to rest during the work week. (r)	11. Non ho tempo per riposare durante la settimana lavorativa. (r)	.93	
12. I have free time during the work week.	12. Ho del tempo libero durante la settimana lavorativa.	.63	
Factor 5: Complementary Values	Fattore 5: Valori Congruenti		.58
13. The values of my organization match my family values.	13. I valori del mio posto di lavoro corrispondono ai valori della mia famiglia.	.96	
14. My organization's values align with my family values.	14. I valori del mio posto di lavoro si allineano con i valori della mia famiglia.	.98	
15. The values of my organization match the values within my community.	15. I valori del mio posto di lavoro corrispondono ai valori all'interno della mia comunità.	.82	
Open-ended question: "Decent" work is employment that meets the minimum acceptable standards for a good life. Given this definition, what components do you feel a job needs to have to be considered "decent" or "acceptable"?	Domanda a risposta aperta: Il lavoro "dignitoso" è un lavoro che soddisfa i requisiti minimi accettabili per una buona vita. Data questa definizione, quali sono secondo lei le componenti che un lavoro dovrebbe avere per essere considerato "dignitoso" o "accettabile"?		

Table 4

Measurement Invariance Across Languages and Gender

	χ^2	<i>df</i>	χ^2/df	GFI	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	<i>p</i>	ΔCFI	$\Delta RMSEA$
<i>Measurement Invariance Across Languages</i>												
Configural invariance	480.30	255	1.88	.908	.961	.951	.038					
Metric invariance	502.34	275	1.83	.903	.960	.954	.037	22.04	20	> .05	< .001	< .001
Scalar invariance	511.57	283	1.81	.901	.960	.956	.037	9.23	8	> .05	< .001	< .001
<i>Measurement Invariance Across Gender</i>												
Configural invariance	348.51	170	2.05	.929	.968	.961	.042					
Metric invariance	360.11	180	2.00	.926	.968	.963	.041	11.60	10	> .05	< .001	< .001
Scalar invariance	368.27	184	2.00	.924	.967	.963	.041	8.15	4	> .05	< .001	< .001

Note. CFI = Comparative Fit Index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index; RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation.

Table 5

Internal Consistencies, Descriptives, Kurtosis, and Skewness for each Linguistic Region

Swiss linguistic regions	French-speaking Switzerland					German-speaking Switzerland					Italian-speaking Switzerland				
	α	Mean	SD	K	S	α	Mean	SD	K	S	α	Mean	SD	K	S
Social class (1-4)	—	3.26	0.86	0.33	-0.39	—	3.04	0.76	0.48	-0.32	—	2.98	0.66	0.46	-0.37
Education (1-6)	—	4.85	1.31	-0.82	-0.69	—	4.78	1.31	-1.07	-0.59	—	4.86	1.24	-0.71	-0.69
Income (1-9)	—	4.93	2.23	-0.68	0.42	—	4.86	2.14	-0.61	0.46	—	4.05	1.97	0.59	0.99
Qual. job insecurity	.87	2.83	0.96	-0.73	0.04	.93	2.60	1.05	-0.71	0.31	.88	2.97	0.97	-0.60	-0.13
Quant. job insecurity	.90	2.09	0.88	-0.34	0.60	.88	2.09	0.86	0.45	0.88	.87	2.25	0.86	0.73	0.78
Work volition (absence)	.87	2.79	1.06	0.76	0.93	.89	2.77	1.09	-0.54	0.60	.88	3.08	1.23	-0.27	0.60
Decent work	.83	4.70	0.89	0.19	-0.52	.84	4.95	0.86	-0.28	-0.44	.86	4.78	1.00	-0.35	-0.15
Safety	.78	5.14	1.39	-0.24	-0.75	.73	5.53	1.15	1.42	-1.15	.77	5.44	1.25	-0.12	-0.78
Health care	.88	5.23	1.34	1.20	-1.20	.82	5.82	0.99	4.38	-1.61	.87	5.53	1.26	1.24	-1.24
Compensation	.89	4.25	1.65	-1.10	-0.09	.93	4.25	1.75	-1.11	-0.13	.93	4.08	1.90	-1.13	0.05
Free time and rest	.85	4.13	1.60	-1.04	-0.06	.86	4.38	1.57	-0.76	-0.37	.82	4.20	1.62	-0.94	-0.09
Values	.90	4.76	1.33	0.07	-0.75	.94	4.75	1.31	0.40	-0.72	.94	4.65	1.55	-0.43	-0.55
Job satisfaction	.88	5.54	1.18	1.77	-1.45	.84	5.54	1.07	0.37	-0.94	.73	5.28	1.07	1.04	-1.05
Life satisfaction	.88	5.26	1.17	1.02	-1.10	.87	5.24	1.12	1.39	-1.16	.90	5.18	1.26	0.50	-0.92

Table 6

Correlations Among all Variables

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.
1. Age	—										
2. Gender	-.17 ^{***}	—									
3. Perceived social class	.10 [*]	.05	—								
4. Education	-.05	-.08 [*]	.33 ^{***}	—							
5. Unemployment history	.04	-.06	-.05	-.06	—						
6. Income	.29 ^{***}	.23 ^{***}	.51 ^{***}	.29 ^{***}	-.11 [*]	—					
7. Qualitative job insecurity	.08	.01	-.10 [*]	-.06	.03	-.09 [*]	—				
8. Quantitative job insecurity	.11 ^{**}	.11 ^{**}	-.14 ^{**}	-.13 ^{**}	.08 [*]	.09 [*]	.64 ^{***}	—			
9. Work volition (absence)	-.01	-.02	-.38 ^{***}	-.23 ^{***}	.21 ^{***}	-.27 ^{***}	.44 ^{***}	.50 ^{***}	—		
10. Decent work	.11 ^{**}	.02	.32 ^{***}	.09 [*]	-.13 ^{**}	.23 ^{***}	-.47 ^{***}	-.39 ^{***}	-.53 ^{***}	—	
11. Job satisfaction	.08 [*]	.04	.28 ^{***}	.18 ^{***}	-.12 ^{**}	.25 ^{***}	-.39 ^{***}	-.33 ^{***}	-.63 ^{***}	.55 ^{***}	—
12. Life satisfaction	.12 ^{**}	.06	.37 ^{***}	.13 ^{**}	-.17 ^{***}	.29 ^{***}	-.36 ^{***}	-.33 ^{***}	-.59 ^{***}	.50 ^{***}	.55 ^{***}

Note. For gender and unemployment history biserial correlations were computed.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$.

Table 7

Categories and subcategories of decent work components (n = 104)

Category	Subcategory	<i>N</i>	%
1. Positive Employment Conditions		83	79.8
	1.1 Compensation	76	73.1
	1.2 Workload and Hours	41	39.4
2. Attractive Work Context		76	73.1
	2.1 Relationships at Work	58	55.8
	2.2 Contents of Work	47	45.2
3. Work Security		36	34.6
	3.1 Physical Security	26	25.0
	3.2 Employment Security	19	18.3
4. Valued Personal Outcomes of Work		33	31.7
	4.1 Meaning at Work	19	18.3
	4.2 Growth at and through Work	15	14.4

Highlights

- The Swiss adaptation of the Decent Work Scale shows good psychometric properties
- DWS scores can be compared across gender and languages (French, German, Italian)
- Age, social class, and qualitative job security predict decent work
- Work volition and decent work predict job and life satisfaction
- Perceived components of decent work confirm the pertinence of the PWT

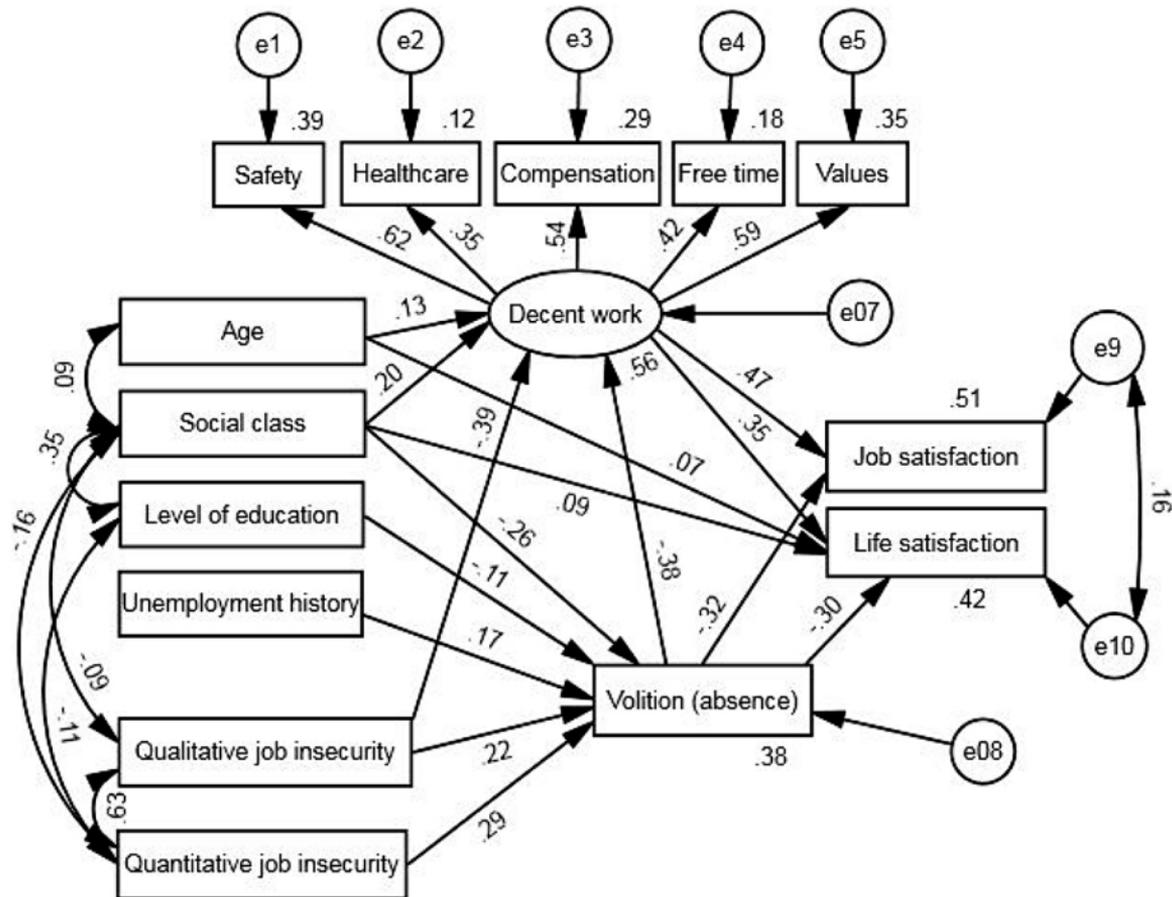


Figure 1