DIFFERENT FORMS OF JOB SATISFACTION: DOES JOB SATISFACTION MEAN SATISFIED EMPLOYEES?

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This article introduces a qualitative model for different forms of job satisfaction that was originally proposed by Bruggemann, Grosskurth, and Ulich (1975), and further developed by Büssing (1992) and colleagues. This model is not new, but was probably buried in oblivion as a result of the longstanding and overwhelming dominance of the quantitative approach to job satisfaction in the English-speaking research community. We provide a brief historical overview on the quantitative research tradition of job satisfaction and basically discuss its methodological shortcomings. As an alternative, we describe different qualitative forms of job satisfaction according to Bruggemann et al. (1975) and Büssing (1992), and we additionally report some empirical results on the Bruggemann model. These findings suggest that the qualitative and quantitative approaches measure different aspects of job satisfaction, and that the integration of both approaches is a promising direction for future research. In the general discussion we propose some research perspectives and practical implications focusing on this integrative approach.

Introduction

The widespread use of job satisfaction to monitor employees' quality of working conditions is primarily based on a quantitative appreciation of job satisfaction. This quantitative approach has its roots in the job satisfaction research history that was and still is dominated by the US tradition. Within this tradition, employees' are asked to which degree they are satisfied with their job or with different facets of their job, though the quality of satisfaction, e.g. different types of job satisfaction, is usually not questioned. As a

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possible consequence, studies measuring the degree of satisfaction report nearly unbelievable high percentages of job satisfaction (up to 90%). In the work and organizational psychology literature, job satisfaction is one of the most prominently researched concepts, and thousands of studies on the antecedents and effects of employees' job satisfaction have been conducted (Cranny, Smith, & Stone, 1992; Locke, 1976). The interest in this research topic is still ongoing, as quite a bit of evidence has been found for the impact of job satisfaction on both individual and organizational outcomes. For example, job satisfaction correlates positively with employees' well-being, while dissatisfied employees report significantly poorer health than satisfied employees (Faragher, Cass, & Cooper, 2005; Iwanowa, 2007; Wegge, van Dick, & von Bernstorff, 2010). Moreover, there is a much stronger correlation between job satisfaction and mental health problems than with physical complaints (Faragher et al., 2005). A meta-analysis conducted by Faragher et al. (2005) reports medium to high positive correlations of job dissatisfaction with anxiety ($r=0.420$), with depression ($r=0.428$) and with burnout ($r=0.478$). As a result, dissatisfied employees seem to be much more vulnerable to these mental illnesses, and there is also empirical evidence that job satisfaction is strongly related to organizational commitment (e.g. Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993). Satisfied employees are more affectively and normatively attached to their organization than dissatisfied employees, whereas job satisfaction correlates negatively with a continuous commitment, which is in line with findings that confirm a higher turnover rate among dissatisfied employees compared to satisfied ones (e.g. Neuberger, 1974, Tett & Meyer, 1993). With respect to organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB), empirical results support the positive effect of job satisfaction on OCB to a moderate degree (e.g. Organ & Ryan, 1995; LePine, Erez, & Johnson, 2002); although it seems that this direct relationship is moderated by several additional variables (Ziegler, Schlett, Casel, & Diehl, 2012). Inconclusive results on the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational behaviour has also captured researchers' ongoing attention on this topic. This is especially true for the direct effect of job satisfaction on individual performance, with many studies investigating this relationship, but meta-analyses from Iaffaldano and Muchinsky (1985) and Six and Eckes (1991) indicate just low positive true population correlations (0.172 and 0.179) between job satisfaction and individual performance. Nearly all of the reported studies applied a quantitative approach by measuring the degree of job satisfaction according to the US tradition. Hence, the neglect of the qualitative aspects of satisfaction may be one reason for the described inconsistent findings.

The purpose of the present article is to depict a qualitative model of job satisfaction that, in combination with previous quantitative research approaches, offers fruitful new insights into a comprehensive understanding of employees' genuine job satisfaction. For this reason, the article starts with a brief historical overview on job satisfaction that refers to the US research

tradition. Additionally, we point to the pitfalls and shortcomings of this quantitative tradition that still dominates the English-speaking research community. Subsequently, we present the reader with an alternative to the US approach, describing the qualitative model of different forms of job satisfaction invented by Bruggemann et al. (1975). The so-called Bruggemann model takes a closer look on the qualitative nature of different types of job satisfaction, while Büssing (1992), who first introduced this qualitative model into the English-speaking organizational behaviour literature,[4] extended and further developed the Bruggemann model. We describe Büssing and Bissels' (1998) extended model of different forms of job satisfaction, and refer to empirical evidence. Lastly, the paper discusses research and practical implications, and makes some conclusions on the possible integration of the two approaches in order to increase its applicability.

Outline of the US Research Tradition on Job Satisfaction

The great demand on studies investigating the causal connection between job satisfaction and performance, as well as productivity, is to be found in the comprehensive US research tradition. The seminal Hawthorne experiments (Roethlisberger & Dickson, 1939) revealed that job alienated- and socially isolated workers were less satisfied and subsequently less productive. Hence, possibilities for social contacts during work were assumed to be the major determinants of job satisfaction and productivity (Bruggemann et al., 1975). Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (1959) were interested in identifying additional determinants of job satisfaction, in addition to social contacts, group structure and leadership, while in interview studies they wanted to ascertain the reasons why employees felt satisfied or dissatisfied. Herzberg et al. (1959) categorized employees' reported events, which resulted in two independent factors of job satisfaction: satisfiers (content factors) and dissatisfiers (context factors). Herzberg et al.'s (1959) dual-factor theory proposes that content factors lead to job satisfaction, but not to job dissatisfaction, whereas context factors are not able to entail job satisfaction, but only job dissatisfaction. Satisfiers are job characteristics related to the work itself and to the rewards that flow directly from the performance of that work. Such intrinsic factors (achievement, recognition, interesting work, responsibility, advancement) motivate employees to a superior performance and effort, while dissatisfiers, which are external factors and related to the work environment (policy and administration, supervision, work conditions, relationship with a superior, relationships with peers), are not able to motivate employees to perform better. A few researchers (e. g. Bruggemann et

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4   Büssing's sudden death in 2003 probably impeded the spread of this model of different forms of job satisfaction in the English-speaking research community.

al., 1975; House & Wigdor, 1967; Hulin & Waters, 1971; Locke, 1969) criticized the dual- factor theory in its early days, particularly with respect to methodological issues, as several studies failed in empirically replicating the original study (e.g. Hulin & Waters, 1971; Starcevich, 1972; Waters & Roach, 1971). The independence of the two factors, and as such the mutual exclusiveness of content and context factors, was also put in question. Herzberg et al.'s (1959) results show that achievement and recognition are not only satisfiers, but also dissatisfiers (House & Wigdor, 1967), and the suggested direct relationship between satisfiers and productivity was also contested. Out of the 27 studies that Herzberg et al. (1959) reported, only 14 studies identified a positive relationship (House & Wigdor, 1967).

McGregor (1957) applied Maslow's motivation theory of needs to an organizational context, showing that satisfying these basic human needs at work motivates employees and leads to satisfaction. According to McGregor (1957), physiological and safety needs in organizations are constantly satisfied with payment, with predictable management actions and administrative policy, as well as with a stable and continued employment. Therefore, these lower needs in Maslow's hierarchical sense do not motivate employees anymore, and it is important to activate employees' social-, ego- and self-fulfilment needs as motivators within organizations. McGregor (1957) offers some management interventions, which enhance the opportunity to satisfy those higher human basic needs, including decentralization and delegation, job enlargement, participation and consultative management, as well as employee involvement in goal-setting and evaluating their performance themselves.

Compared to Herzberg et al. (1959) and McGregor (1957), Vroom (1964) focuses not only on motivational contents, but also on motivational dynamics. The three core variables within his motivational dynamic theory are valence, expectancy and force, and generally speaking, valence is an individual's affective orientation towards an outcome. The individual's valence of an outcome depends on the individual's expectation that the intended outcome will be achieved, while the force to act is a multiplicative combination of valence and expectancy. If the valence of an outcome and the probability to achieve the desired outcome (expectancy) are high, the force to act is very strong. If the valence is high and the probability of reaching the outcome is close to zero, the force to act is cancelled. Transferring this general theory of motivational dynamics to an organizational context, Vroom (1964) assumes an instrumental relationship between work motivation and performance. This theory – known as the VIE theory (valence-instrumentality-expectancy) – states that work motivation depends upon the valence of the expected consequences of performance. Vroom (1964) perceives job satisfaction as the valence of an individual's performance of a job, saying "The valence of a job to a person performing it is a monotonically increasing function of the algebraic sum of the products of the valences of all other outcomes and his conceptions of the instrumentality of the job for the attainment of these other

outcomes" (Vroom, 1964, p. 279). This means that job satisfaction depends upon the belief that performance will lead to rewards (instrumentality), and upon the belief that with effort one reaches the performance that is necessary to attain the rewards (expectancy).

In a similar vein, Locke (1969) emphasized the importance of individuals' values and their personal appraisal in explaining job satisfaction. He defines job satisfaction as "… the pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job as achieving or facilitating the achievement of one's job values. Job dissatisfaction is the unpleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job as frustrating or blocking the attainment of one's job values or as entailing disvalues. Job satisfaction and dissatisfaction are a function of the perceived relationship between what one wants from one's job and what one perceives it as offering or entailing" (Locke, 1969, p. 316). Three core elements guide this appraisal process: 1) the perception of some aspects of the job; 2) an implicit or explicit value standard and 3) a conscious or subconscious judgment of the relationship between one's perception(s) and one's value(s) (Locke, 1969, pp. 316-317). This judgment may lead to a value-percept discrepancy, i.e. the higher this discrepancy, the higher the job dissatisfaction. Taking into account that every value consists of the two attributes of content and intensity, a dynamic character emerges in the appraisal. The content is related to what the person wants, while the intensity considers how much the individual wants to gain or keep it. "Every experience of satisfaction or dissatisfaction reflects a dual value judgment: the degree of value-percept discrepancy and the relative importance of the value to the individual" (Locke, 1969, p. 330). Besides the hierarchy of importance, the level of value abstraction plays a crucial role in Locke's description of job satisfaction. Individuals' values or goals may simultaneously be more and less abstract. Specific goals have to fit into a person's wider values, and by judging the possible goal achievement within the work context, job satisfaction or dissatisfaction will be the result. "An individual's job satisfaction can be predicted and explained in the short range by taking account of his specific goals. To achieve this in the long run, however, one would have to consider his wider values. For these wider values determine what future goals a person will seek after achieving his present goals" (Locke, 1969, p. 327). Although Locke (1969) advocated an interactive approach – to investigate the interactive play of job characteristics and individual characteristics for predicting job satisfaction – he focused in particular on the individual part in his research. Locke's (1969; 1976) definitions clearly emphasize that job satisfaction is an employee's affective/emotional state and a personal attitude.

Hackman and Oldham (1976) strengthened the importance of job characteristics in the discussion of job satisfaction. With the help of their job characteristic model (JCM), they explained how specific work features (skill variety, task significance and identity, autonomy and feedback) impact

employees' psychological states, which in turn lead to high job satisfaction. Both work-related factors and individual characteristics play an important role in the development of job satisfaction. Employees' growth need strength moderates the proposed relationship, whereas empirical studies corroborate the proposed relationships. In a meta-analysis, Loher, Noe, Moeller and Fitzgerald (1984) confirmed direct correlations between the job characteristics and job satisfaction in a medium range (between 0.32 and 0.46), and taking the individual moderator variable growth need strength into account, the "true" correlation in the group of high growth need strength was 0.68.

These results were convincing, but mainstream research on job satisfaction nevertheless developed in the direction of personality traits and employees' attitudes as predictors of job satisfaction. Several studies have investigated the impact of the big five and related constructs (positive and negative affectivity; core self-evaluations) on employees' job satisfaction (Dormann & Zapf, 2001; Dormann, Fay, Zapf, & Frese, 2006; Judge, Heller, & Mount, 2002; Judge, Bono, Erez, & Locke, 2005). Significant relationships were found between job satisfaction and neuroticism, extraversion, conscientiousness, self-esteem, self-efficacy and locus of control, though the correlations vary between 0.17 (locus of control) and 0.40 (self-esteem). Hence, the empirical evidence suggests that personality traits are associated with job satisfaction, although the interplay of job and individual characteristics was disregarded.

Summarizing the aforementioned research traditions, job satisfaction is considered to be an emotional state determined by the satisfaction of personal needs, employees' values and expectations, as well as by personality traits on the one hand and content- and context-related job characteristics on the other. All of these different positions make a contribution to a better understanding of job satisfaction, but the integration of these positions into an overall theory is missing. These theoretical approaches also neglect situational factors (e.g. controllability of work conditions), thus viewing job satisfaction from a very static perspective (Büssing, 1992). Although employees' needs and expectations are considered, their interaction in different situations is not included in the model, which is particularly apparent in the used measurements of job satisfaction. Locke (1969) proposed that employees rate their satisfaction with different dimensions and sum them up to an index, "Overall job satisfaction is the sum of the evaluations of the discriminable elements of which the job is composed" (Locke, 1969, p. 330). A weighting according to the importance of the value is not necessary because employees express their value in the level of rating (the higher they rate, the more valuable), and by doing so, different degrees of satisfaction and dissatisfaction can be surveyed (Locke, 1969). But it is a question as to whether different degrees of satisfaction represent different qualities of job satisfaction, and the most highly used measurements of job satisfaction according to this US research tradition are (Saari & Judge, 2004):

- Job Descriptive Index (JDI; Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969). It assesses job satisfaction with five different facets: pay, promotion, co-workers, supervision and the work itself.
- Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ; Weiss, Dawis, England, & Lofquist, 1967). Different versions of the MSQ exist, including short and long versions, and faceted and overall measures.
- Brayfield and Rothe (1951): This measure captures just one overall dimension of job satisfaction with five items. Interestingly, Locke (1969) proposed a survey job satisfaction with different dimensions and not one overall dimension, but he and his colleagues (Judge, Bono, & Locke (2000); Judge, Bono, Erez, & Locke (2005) mostly used this unidimensional measurement.

The most convincing shortcoming of the unidimensional satisfaction measurement is the fact that the measured job satisfaction rate is extremely high, as between 60 to 90% of employees report being satisfied with their job (Büssing & Bissels, 1998; Büssing, Bissels, Fuchs, & Perrar, 1999; Oshagbemi, 1999). Brown, Charlwood and Spencer (2012) indicated that car assembly workers were highly satisfied with their jobs – even if their job was monotonous, fragmented and with little opportunity for meaningful social interaction. The authors argue that they were satisfied because they mostly valued extrinsic rewards. Brown et al. (2012) raised the question as to why workers report satisfaction with such jobs: "Is it because a full range of work-related needs are being met, or is it because workers' norms and expectations have adjusted to accommodate a situation in which a full range of needs cannot be met?" (Brown et al., 2012, p. 1012). Workers benchmark their current job situation with previous employment experiences (Brown et al., 2012), and by just asking for the overall satisfaction, the dynamics of employees' evaluation are ignored. Even focusing on different dimensions of job satisfaction may not be enough, as researchers calculate an index across the dimensions and that this index reflects the quantitative degree of job satisfaction. It is likely that an alternative approach that inspects the quality of job satisfaction will be more promising, and in the following section we introduce such a qualitative approach of job satisfaction, which was invented by Agnes Bruggemann and her Swiss research group (Bruggemann et al., 1975).

The Bruggemann Model of Different Forms of Job Satisfaction

Bruggemann and colleagues attempted to overcome the shortcomings of the applied models and their measurements. In their seminal book "Arbeitszufriedenheit," Bruggemann et al. (1975) described a dynamic concept of job satisfaction that not only refers to the degree of satisfaction, but also to different forms of job satisfaction. These forms of job satisfaction differentiate

between the qualities of satisfaction, and by taking an additional look at different qualities they explain the interactional dynamics between individual- and job-related determinants of job satisfaction. Figure 1 summarizes their model of different forms of job satisfaction, with three core processes being decisive for this type of satisfaction:

1. Satisfaction, or rather dissatisfaction, of needs and expectations at a given point of time.
2. An increase, maintenance or decrease in the level of aspiration resulting from satisfaction or dissatisfaction.
3. Problem solving, problem fixation or problem suppression in cases of dissatisfaction.

First, employees compare the given work situation with their general needs, expectations and motives, establishing a nominal value for the possibility of satisfying their needs within the job. The given possibilities to satisfy the needs correspond to the actual value, with the comparison between actual and nominal value leading to stabilizing satisfaction or indistinct dissatisfaction with one's work. Stabilizing satisfaction describes "a steady feeling of relaxation as a result of met expectations and needs" (Büssing et al., 1999, p. 1003), while indistinct dissatisfaction is "a feeling of tension as a result of unsatisfied needs and expectations" (Büssing et al., 1999, p. 1003).

Second, the change in the level of aspiration entails an additional differentiation, and in cases of stabilizing satisfaction, progressive job satisfaction arises if the level of aspiration increases. Progressive satisfied employees are viewing possibilities within their job to reach even higher levels of satisfaction, whereas stabilized job satisfaction emerges if employees are satisfied and they want to maintain the level of aspiration within the job. These employees are motivated to sustain the current satisfying situation. In cases of indistinct dissatisfaction, the level of aspiration can decrease or be maintained, and a decrease in the level of aspiration leads to a formal positive value of job satisfaction. Nonetheless, this kind of satisfaction is not the result of the original comparison of actual and nominal values. In fact, the original expectations were reduced in terms of a nominal value reduction. Such employees have passively resigned from job involvement, which is why this form of satisfaction is called resigned satisfaction. Maintaining the level of aspiration can result in three further forms of (dis)satisfaction: pseudo job satisfaction and fixated- and constructive job dissatisfaction.

The distinction between these three forms of job (dis)satisfaction depends on the third process, namely problem solving behaviour. If indistinct dissatisfied employees stick to their aspiration level and search for new solutions to their actual job problems, constructive job satisfaction is the result, and such employees are characterized by a high frustration tolerance. Fixated job satisfaction emerges when indistinct dissatisfied employees maintain their aspira-

tion level, but see no possibilities to improve their situation. Hence, they do not indicate problem solving attempts. According to the model, pseudo job satisfaction occurs when dissatisfied employees face unsolvable problems and react with a distorted perception or a denial of the negative work situation. Even so, this form of job satisfaction will not be explored in detail because Bruggemann (1974) herself expressed doubts on the possible operationalization of pseudo job satisfaction and ignored it in further investigations.
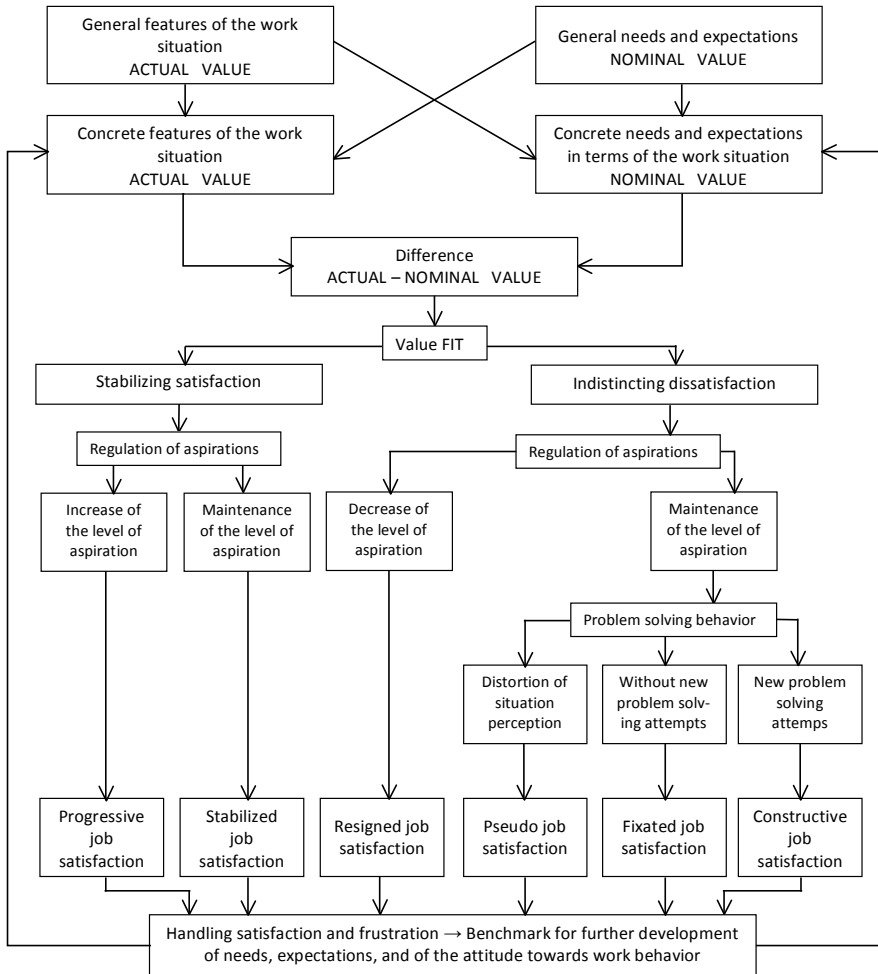

Figure 1. Different forms of job satisfaction (Bruggemann et al., 1975, p. 134, translated and further developed).

André Büssing (1992) was the first to translate and introduce the Bruggemann model of job satisfaction into English-speaking literature. Therefore, the following overview and description of the six forms of job satisfaction (Bruggemann et al., 1975) are literally taken from the information box in Büssing (1992, p. 245).

Information box: Different forms of job satisfaction (Büssing, 1992, p. 245)

- *Progressive work satisfaction:* A person feels satisfied with the work. By increasing the level of aspiration a person tries to achieve an even higher level of satisfaction. Therefore, a "creative dissatisfaction" with respect to some aspects of the work situation can be an integral part of this form.
- *Stabilized work satisfaction:* A person feels satisfied with the work, but is motivated to maintain the level of aspiration and the pleasurable state of satisfaction. An increase of the level of aspiration is concentrated on other areas of life because of little work incentives.
- *Resigned work satisfaction:* A person feels indistinct work dissatisfaction and decreases the level of aspiration in order to adapt to negative aspects of the work situation on a lower level. By decreasing the level of aspiration a person is able to achieve a positive state of satisfaction again.
- *Constructive work dissatisfaction:* A person feels dissatisfied with the work. While maintaining the level of aspiration a person tries to master the situation by problem solving attempts on the basis of sufficient frustration tolerance. Moreover, available action concepts supply for goal orientation and motivation for altering the work situation.
- *Fixated work dissatisfaction:* A person feels dissatisfied with the work. Maintaining the level of aspiration a person does not try to master the situation by problem solving attempts. While frustration tolerance prevents defense mechanisms, necessary efforts for problem solving seem beyond any possibility. Therefore, the individual gets stuck with their problems and pathological developments cannot be excluded.
- *Pseudo work satisfaction:* A person feels dissatisfied with the work. Facing unsolvable problems or frustrating conditions at work and maintaining one's level of aspiration, for example because of a specific achievement motivation or because of strong social norms, a distorted perception or a denial of the negative work situation may result in a pseudo work satisfaction.

The Bruggemann model of job satisfaction was also tested empirically. Bruggemann (1976) developed a questionnaire entitled "Arbeitszufriedenheits-Kurzfragebogen" (AZK; Job Satisfaction Questionnaire – Short Form) to help identify five of the six types of satisfaction. She disregarded pseudo job satisfaction from her further investigations because she doubted that this type could be operationalized. The AZK consisted of 12 items, which covered the degree/intensity and the dynamics of job satisfaction. One item measured overall job satisfaction (degree), two items asked about psychological well-being at work (intensity), another two surveyed the changes in the level of aspiration (dynamics) and seven items evaluated the different forms of (dis)satisfaction (dynamics) (Büssing, 1992), and this questionnaire was used for several replication studies between 1990 and 2003 (e.g. Baillod & Semmer, 1994; Büssing, 1992; Fellmann, 1980; Oegerli, 1984; Pfister & Moser, 1989; Udris & Riman, 1994; Widmer, 1988; for an overview, see Baumgartner & Urdis, 2006, p. 120, Table 2). In most investigations, it was not possible to fully identify all forms of job satisfaction, but what those studies had in common is that they differentiated between a satisfaction and resignation component (Baumgartner & Udris, 2006). The proportion of resigned satisfied employees was impressively high, ranging between 25 to 45%. Considering that all those resigned satisfied employees reported satisfaction in studies that only measured the degree of job satisfaction, the high percentage of overall satisfaction is not astonishing. The Bruggemann model opened up new perspectives to job satisfaction research, particularly taking into account the change in the aspiration level and the question of how satisfied employees were in reality, which helped shed light on the job satisfaction process (Baumgartner & Udris, 2006).

Extended Bruggemann Model According to Büssing (1992)

Primarily in the German-speaking research community, the Bruggemann model became very popular. André Büssing was one of the proponents of this qualitative job satisfaction approach, and in his theoretical and empirical research on the different forms of job satisfaction (e.g. Büssing, 1991; 1992; Büssing & Bissels, 1998; Büssing et al., 1999), he adapted and extended the original model in three aspects.

First, he included a fourth key variable – perceived controllability – in explaining different forms of job satisfaction. Büssing (1992) argues that perceived controllability is one of the main mechanisms that regulates the interrelation between a person and their work situation, and thus it is crucial in developing job satisfaction. Perceived controllability at the workplace was derived from the concept of latitudes at work, which is comprised of three facets: latitudes of action, decision latitudes and designing latitudes,
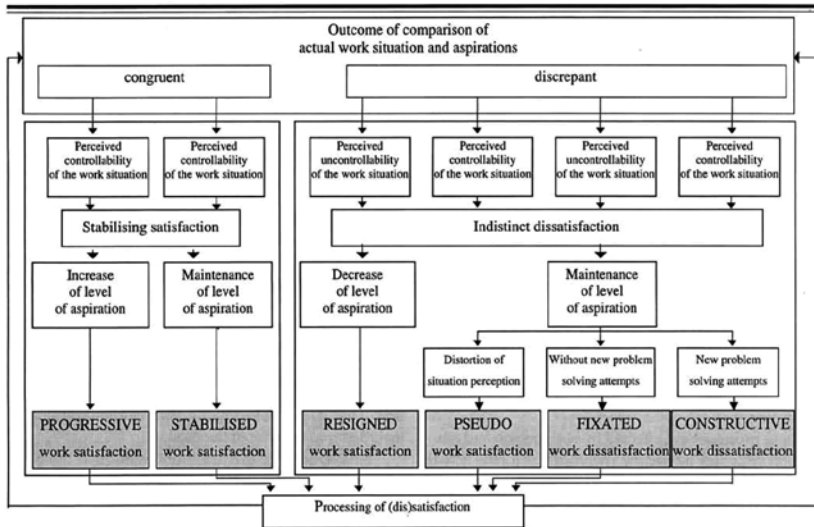
Figure 2. Different forms of work satisfaction according to the extended model (Bruggemann, 1974; Büssing & Bissels, 1998 (p. 211). Reproduced with permission from *European Psychologist*, Vol. 3 (3), 1998, pp. 209-218 ©1998 Hogrefe & Huber Publisher www.hogrefe.com

e.g. latitudes at work are opportunities for independently designing work procedures. The importance of the concept of control in work- and organizational literature is well known (e.g. Ganster & Fusilier, 1989; Jones & Fletcher, 1998; Sauter, Hurrell, & Cooper, 1989), and Figure 2 shows the adapted model by Büssing and Bissels (1998):

Second, Büssing (1992), Büssing and Bissels (1998) and Büssing et al. (1999) all used qualitative interviews and quantitative measurements to evaluate different forms of job satisfaction, as Büssing (1992) doubted that the sole use of questionnaires could properly explain the dynamic process of the person-work-interaction.

The third extension was unfolded through empirical evidence, as several of the aforementioned researchers (including Büssing, 1992) used Bruggemann's (1976) job satisfaction questionnaire (AZK) to evaluate employees' forms of job satisfaction. Most studies did not identify all types of the original model, but they repeatedly found additional clusters of job satisfaction that were not proposed by Bruggemann, e.g. a form that Büssing and Bissels (1998) called "resigned dissatisfaction." Resigned dissatisfied employees "…do not manage to attain satisfaction by reducing their level of aspiration like the resigned satisfied group […], but whose dissatisfaction is consolidating" (Büssing & Bissels, 1998, p. 212).

Lastly, the extended model of forms of job satisfaction is based on the following four core variables (Figure 3): comparison of the actual values of the

Differentiation of six different forms of work satisfaction depending on the configuration of the four constituent variables (adapted from Büssing, 1991).

Comparison: actual values of the work situation vs. personal aspirations	Global (dis)satisfaction	Level of aspiration	Controllability of work situation	Forms of work (dis)satisfaction
=/+[a]	+[c]	↑	high	Progressive satisfaction
=/+	+	↔	high	Stabilized satisfaction
_[b]	_[d]	↓	low	Resigned satisfaction
-	- _[e]	↓	low	Resigned dissatisfaction
-	- -	↔	low	Fixated dissatisfaction
-	- -	↔	high	Constructive dissatisfaction

a = congruent or positive relationship of the actual work situation and personal aspirations, b = incongruent, negative relationship of the actual work situation and personal aspirations, c = stabilizing satisfaction, d = indstinct dissatisfaction, e = manifesting dissatisfaction
↑ = increase in level of aspiration, ↓ = decrease in level of aspiration, ↔ = maintenance of level of aspiration

Figure 3. Six different forms of work satisfaction, including the perceived controllability of the work situation (Büssing & Bissels, 1998; p. 213). Reproduced with permission from *European Psychologist*, Vol. 3 (3), 1998, pp. 209-218 ©1998 Hogrefe & Huber Publisher www.hogrefe.com

work situation and personal aspriations, indistinct/stabilizing dissatisfaction versus stabilizing satisfaction (global [dis]satisfaction), changes in level of aspiration and perceived controllability at work. The combination of these four components derives six forms of work (dis)satisfaction. "For example, a congruent configuration of the actual work situation and personal aspirations (=), stabilizing satisfaction (+), an increase in the level of aspriation (↑) and the perception of a high controllability of work conditions (high) are classified as progressive work satisfaction" (Büssing & Bissels, 1998, p. 213).

Büssing and colleagues conducted a number of empirical studies to prove the extended model of different forms of job satisfaction. In psychiatric hospitals, they surveyed nurses through the use of the Bruggemann's Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (1976) and a Q-sort technique, though primarily with semi-structured interviews (Büssing, 1992; Büssing & Bissels, 1998; Büssing et al., 1999). They could replicate all six forms of the extended model of job satisfaction, which included the new dimension of perceived controllability. According to their model, progressive-, as well as stabilized satisfied- and constructive satisfied employees all reported high levels of perceived controllability at work in the interviews, whereas resigned satisfaction, resigned dissatisfaction and fixated dissatisfaction were found to be accompanied with a low perception of control (Büssing et al., 1999).

With respect to the effects of different forms of job satisfaction on employees' health, Büssing (1992), Iwanowa (2007) and Kälin et al. (2000) were able to confirm significant correlations between resigned satisfaction and employees' reduced well-being. Resigned satisfied employees refer to a lowered positive attitude towards life and to higher levels of irritability (Kälin et al., 2000), while stabilized and progressive satisfied employees reported a signifi-

cantly higher general well-being and lower depressive and neurotic complaints than fixated dissatisfied and resigned satisfied employees (Iwanowa, 2007).

Different forms of job satisfaction are also associated with employees' organizational behaviour. Resigned satisfaction significantly related to a reduced appreciation of work and a reduced performance and effort, as well as a higher resistance to change (Büssing, 1992; Kälin et al., 2000). Moreover, interview studies showed that resigned satisfied employees reported reduced goal-setting activities, in addition to limited professional development and job socialization (Büssing, 1992). Marcus and Wagner (2007) differentiated between constructive and non-constructive forms of job (dis)satisfaction, while constructive (dis)satisfaction forms were negatively related to counterproductive behaviour (e.g. theft, disloyalty, absenteeism, disregard of authority/rules).

And lastly, there is some empirical evidence that there are types of job satisfaction associated with job related resources as well as stressors. In Kälin et al's. (2000) study, resigned satisfaction was positively correlated to tasks and social stressors. Ziegler and Schlett's (2013) results showed that constructive and stabilized satisfied employees reported significantly better work content and resources (e.g. action latitude, cooperation) and less stressors (e.g. qualitative and quantitative work load, interruptions at work) than resigned satisfied-, constructive dissatisfied- and fixated dissatisfied employees. Additionally, resigned satisfied employees perceived significantly less work stressors than constructive and fixated dissatisfied employees (Ziegler & Schlett, 2013). Up until now, there are just a couple of empirical studies that have investigated the relationship between the different forms of job satisfaction and several outcomes, and much more empirical research is needed on these qualitative forms of job satisfaction. In addition to identifying important relationships between the forms of job satisfaction and employee behaviour, it is of interest how this qualitative approach is connected to the determinants of job satisfaction proposed by the US research community. Consolidating findings of such an integrative approach will ensure a deeper understanding of job satisfaction.

Integration of Forms and Determinants of Job Satisfaction

Only a few empirical studies have contrasted the types of job satisfaction with the different dimensions and overall degree of job satisfaction (e.g. Baumgartner & Udris, 2006; Fellmann, 1980; Oegerli, 1984; Widmer, 1988; Ziegler & Schlett, 2013). Within their validation study, Ziegler and Schlett (2013) forced employees to assign themselves to Bruggemann's original five different forms of job satisfaction. Subsequently, they compared the different forms of job satisfaction with employees' degree of overall satisfaction, and found significant differences between the types of job satisfaction and employees' degree of overall satisfaction. Fixated dissatisfied employees

reported the lowest overall satisfaction, whereas constructive dissatisfied employees reported higher job satisfaction than the fixated ones, but a lower satisfaction than the resigned satisfied employees. The resigned satisfaction type was less satisfied than the progressive satisfaction type, and the latter one was less satisfied than the stabilized satisfaction type. Thus, the overall satisfaction constantly and significantly rises from fixated dissatisfaction, to constructive dissatisfaction, to resigned satisfaction, to progressive satisfaction and finally to stabilized satisfaction.

Fellmann (1980) identified four different types of job satisfaction and found significant differences between the types regarding content-related aspects, which were especially true for the work itself, the latitude of responsibility and advancement. However, the forms of satisfaction did not differ in the context factors such as payment, leadership or relations with peers. The resigned stabilized satisfaction type is particularly satisfied with advancement and with peer relations, while the resigned fixated dissatisfaction type criticizes absent opportunities for advancement, but is happy with payment and peer relations. The progressive satisfied employee displays high satisfaction with all determinants, while the constructive dissatisfied employee is particularly unsatisfied with the opportunities for advancement and the work itself (Fellmann, 1980).

Baumgartner and Udris' (2006) investigation also resulted in a classification with four different forms of job satisfaction: progressive-, stabilized-, resigned satisfied- and frustrated dissatisfied employees. Three determinants of job satisfaction (work content, supervisors and payment and career opportunities) best differentiated between the four qualitative types of job satisfaction. Stabilized satisfied employees reported a higher satisfaction with all three determinants than the other forms of satisfaction. They significantly differ from the progressive satisfied with respect to payment and career opportunities, from the resigned satisfied with respect to work content and from the frustrated dissatisfied in work content, including supervisors, as well as payment and career opportunities. In none of the three determinants did the progressive satisfied type differ from the resigned satisfied type, though both types reported significantly higher satisfaction in all three determinants than the frustrated dissatisfied type. Taking all studies into consideration (Baumgartner & Udris, 2006; Fellmann, 1980; Oegerli, 1984; Widmer, 1988), Baumgartner and Udris (2006) concluded that qualitative dissatisfaction comes along with a reduced satisfaction of work content and supervisors. The resigned satisfaction type was less satisfied with work content than the progressive and stabilized satisfied types, but they did not differ with respect to the determinants' "pay, supervisor and career opportunities." For the progressive and stabilized satisfaction types the two context factors, "supervisors as well as payment and career opportunities" are important for satisfaction, but they are not that crucial compared to the content factor of "work content." To some extent, Herzberg et al.'s (1959) dual-factor theory

fits with these results. High qualitative satisfaction is related with work content, whereas qualitative dissatisfaction is accompanied with dissatisfaction with payment and career opportunities, as well as with supervisors (Baumgartner & Udris, 2006).

General Discussion

Research Perspectives

For future research, there is one big call: We need more empirical studies on the different forms of job satisfaction, which is true for several reasons. As previously mentioned, former studies had difficulties with replicating Bruggemann's (1976) five types of job satisfaction. Instead, mixed or fewer forms were identified. This was partly due to the use of different measurements, but probably also because of the different samples. The occurrence of different types of job satisfaction may differ, e.g. between hospital personnel, engineers and assembly workers in various production enterprises. Hence, we need more knowledge of the types of satisfaction in different branches and in different occupational settings. Another perspective for future research concerns the effects of the different qualities of job satisfaction, and there is some evidence that resigned satisfaction and fixated dissatisfaction are related to employees' reduced well-being, to the perception of more stressors and to fewer resources. The impact of different job satisfaction types on other organizational behaviour such as commitment, prosocial work behaviour, organizational citizenship behaviour and absenteeism is also of great interest, but to date there have been no empirical investigations of these relationships. Those studies that empirically investigated the effects of different forms of job satisfaction are based upon cross-sectional studies (with one exception reported from Büssing, 1992), and therefore the causality of the relationship is not clear. Longitudinal studies could prove causal dependencies between the types of satisfaction and possible determinants, as well as possible outcomes, and investigating the types of satisfaction over the course of time would provide us with important information about their development and possible changes. Longitudinal surveys are especially fruitful when combining quantitative with qualitative data, while potential changes in the type of satisfaction could be better understood by interviewing employees, supervisors and CEO's about critical incidents on each organizational level. By doing so, we would obtain a fuller picture of the dynamics between organizational and personal characteristics.

With respect to the measurements, we do not plea to only use a qualitative approach. We believe that questionnaires are an adequate tool for surveying employees' job satisfaction, but do not recommend the use of single items or overall satisfaction questionnaires (e.g. Brayfield & Rothe, 1951). One-item measurements definitively fail in evaluating the depth of psychological con-

structs, because the different facets of job satisfaction are blurred by one single item or by averaging divers dimensions to one overall mean. Like several other researchers (e.g. Brown et al., 2012; Büssing & Bissels, 1998; Büssing et al., 1999; Oshagbemi, 1999), we assume that the high percentage of satisfied employees (60-90%) results from the application of such overall satisfaction questionnaires. Oshagbemi (1999) empirically showed that single-item measures overestimate employees' job satisfaction. Questionnaires such as the JDI (Smith et al., 1969), which measure different dimensions of job satisfaction, are able to determine employees' job satisfaction on diverse aspects of work at one given point of time. Such measures provide practitioners with at least more specific insight for intervention opportunities, e.g. on leadership, payment, promotion or co-workers, but of course these measures only focus on the different degrees of satisfaction and cannot evaluate the quality of job satisfaction. We therefore recommend to also carry out a survey of the different forms of job satisfaction according to the revised Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (AZK from Bruggemann, which is published in Baumgartner & Udris, 2006). Furthermore, we advise to consider the dimension of control and the resigned dissatisfaction form suggested by Büssing and Bissels (1998), as the use of surveys measuring both the quality and quantity of job satisfaction may assist in reducing the identification of such a high amount of false satisfied employees. We are already working on such a measurement, and in combination with critical incident interviews in a longitudinal design, we are attempting to capture the entire dynamic of employees' qualitative and quantitative job satisfaction.

Implications for Practice

We want to call practitioners' attention to the added values that this qualitative approach of job satisfaction entails to the well-known quantitative tradition. Taking a closer look at the different forms of job satisfaction might be of special interest in organizational change processes as stabilized and resigned satisfied employees do not have any intention to change their work situation. Consequently, practitioners have to consider that these two types of satisfaction might answer with resistance to possible changes. This is not expected for progressive/constructive satisfied and constructive dissatisfied employees, because they are characterized by a strong intention for changes, a great engagement and a desire for control of their work situation (Baumgartner & Udris, 2006; Büssing, 1992). Constructive dissatisfaction should not be seen as a threat, but as a chance for organizations or management, "The critical potential of this group should be emphasized with regard to organizational change, adaptability and improvement (Büssing, 1992, p. 255)." Such employees do not want to change their job, but they want to alter their working situation. Büssing et al. (1999) proposed to integrate constructive dissatisfied employees into the change process, as they show a sufficient frustration tolerance, and are goal-oriented and motivated to solve

problems and negative work situations. Using this potential for organizational improvements simultaneously guarantees employees' personal involvement and development with challenging and interesting tasks, as well as with possibilities for qualification advancement. As a result, management and other responsible representatives of the organization need to take this win-win-situation seriously. Broadening control to employees, e.g. with participative goal-setting and decision making, autonomous teams or flexible working hours, will indicate the importance and significance of the intended processes.

Evaluating the forms of job satisfaction implies surveying the quality of employees' job satisfaction, and these qualities may vary between different work branches or occupational groups and entail diverse implications. For example, in the production sector, resigned satisfaction may be healthier for employees than constructive dissatisfaction, and higher needs such as ego needs or self-fulfilment can hardly be satisfied by working on an assembly line. Therefore, some assembly workers may try to reduce their level of aspiration with respect to their work, being satisfied with high salaries and attempts to find self-fulfilment in their private lives. Whereas constructive dissatisfaction can be harmful if those employees constantly try to change the conditions, in reality they do not know enough about change possibilities such as the acceleration of technical opportunities or changing the organization of work.

In contrast, resigned satisfaction in the health-care sector is connected with a reduced well-being. Büssing (1992) carried out a lot of interview studies in hospitals, and found empirical evidence for the relationship between resigned satisfied nurses and their weakened health, as well as growing absenteeism rates. Health-care employees choose their profession with intention and they are dedicated to their jobs, and their personal aspirations are also very high. Nurses want to help people and this should also be the objective of the health-care organization. Thus, employees' personal and actual work values normally match, although if working conditions impair healthcare personnel from doing their job according to their values, they will have to reduce their personal aspirations in the long run. This reduction does not come all at once since it is a process, a longer lasting conflict that often results in health problems and absenteeism. When nurses put up with that resignation and they find satisfaction again, they reduce their effort at work, which in turn impacts on performance and results in a lower quality of nursing (Büssing 1992). Resigned dissatisfied nurses on the other hand do not gain satisfaction again through a decrease in their personal aspiration level. They cannot accept a decrease in their moral standards with respect to their job of helping people. Staying in the same workplace, resigned dissatisfied nurses are particularly vulnerable for reduced well-being, and health-care organizations should be aware of both resigned satisfied and dissatisfied personnel. Resignation reduces performance, service quality, and at the end of

the chain it endangers patients' health. Furthermore, it is known that health-care employees serve as a strong model for patients, "This model effect of health care personnel is one of the most influential effects in the process of recovery from illness" (Büssing, 1992, p. 255). The efficiency in health-care organizations seems to be strongly dependent on their personnel's motivation and satisfaction. Hence, progressive and stabilized satisfied nurses probably best establish an environment in hospitals, which ensures a quick and positive recovery of their patients.

Conclusion

This article targeted employees' job satisfaction from both a qualitative and quantitative perspective. To this purpose, we outlined the dominant quantitative research tradition on job satisfaction, and discussed its methodological shortcomings in particular. Out of this criticism, we provided the reader with an alternative approach: Bruggemann's model of different forms of job satisfaction. Both research and practical implications point to the importance of an integrative "qualitative" approach, and measuring the *degree* of employees' job satisfaction with different dimensions offers practitioners intervention possibilities on both the individual and group level. Surveying *different forms* of job satisfaction gives hints for interventions on an organizational level. Moreover, the type of *resigned satisfied employees* explained the unbelievably high percentage of satisfied employees (up to 90%) that was found in previous studies. Therefore, considering the qualitative approach of job satisfaction, we can definitely conclude: No, job satisfaction does not automatically mean that employees are really satisfied.

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