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Empirical Research on Factors Related to the Subjective Well-Being of Chinese Urban Residents

Peigang Wang and

School of Public Health, Wuhan University, Wuhan, China

Tyler J. VanderWeele

Harvard School of Public Health, Boston, MA, USA

Tyler J. VanderWeele: tvanderw@hsph.harvard.edu

Abstract

Data from the China General Social Survey are used in order to investigate the factors that are related to the subjective well-being of Chinese urban residents. Factors predicting higher subjective well-being include female gender, high-income class, marriage, employment, fashionable consumption, less sense of relative deprivation, and party membership. Among these, the sense of relative deprivation has the strongest explanatory power. This suggests that the most direct threat to current subjective well-being in urban China is that its residents are living in a society with dramatic change, competition and increasing inequalities.

Keywords

Subjective well-being; Demographic factors; Urban China; Relative deprivation

1 Introduction

Subjective well-being (SWB) is an individual's judgment and evaluation of their satisfaction with their quality of life (Veenhoven 1991). Research has shown that subjective well-being provides an indication of the individual's subjective welfare and utility level (Easterlin 2001; McBride 2001). For a long time, subjective well-being has been the subject of psychological and sociological study. More recently, economics has also begun research in this area and has made important progress (Easterlin 1974; Ng 1997). At present, there have been a number of empirical studies on subjective well-being in China for college students, high school students and other groups of youth, but little work has been done for urban residents (Shek et al. 2005; Shek 2010). This paper will help fill that gap in the literature. In particular we analyze a number of factors affecting the subjective well-being of Chinese urban residents by using the China General Social Survey. We organize these factors into five sets for expositional convenience.

1.1 Demographic Factors

The early theoretical study of happiness focused on how demographic factors affected SWB. A large number of studies found demographic factors have only limited impact on SWB. Factors such as gender, age, income, marital status and other demographic items generally explain less than 20% of the variance in SWB. Research has found that: (1) women self-report higher levels of happiness than men (Diener et al. 1997; Blanchflower and Oswald

2004; Clark et al. 2001); (2) SWB has a U-shaped relationship with age, with a turning point between 30 and 50 years of age (Hayo and Seifert 2003; Blanchflower and Oswald 2004); (3) married individuals self-report higher levels of happiness than those in other states (Diener et al. 1997; Blanchflower and Oswald 1998); (4) unemployment has a significant negative impact on people's SWB (Frey and Stutzer 2002; Gerlach and Stephan 1996; Diener et al. 1997). Unemployment means not only the loss of a reliable source of income but also the loss of social relationships and social status; the social cost of unemployment may be greater than its economic cost (Winkelmann and Winkelmann 1998); (5) In China, political status is an important variable in that members of the Chinese Communist Party are generally representatives of the social elites and thus may have a higher sense of SWB; (6) A number of empirical studies have shown that income has a significantly positive impact on SWB (Clark et al. 2001); (7) Studies have found that education level has a significant positive impact on SWB (Diener et al. 1997). Based on the this prior research, this paper proposes that similar findings will be found for residents of urban China, i.e. that:

Hypothesis 1–1: Women self-report greater SWB than men;

Hypothesis 1–2: SWB has a U-shaped relationship with age;

Hypothesis 1–3: Married individuals self-report higher SWB than those in other states;

Hypothesis 1–4: The employed self-report higher SWB than the unemployed;

Hypothesis 1–5: Party members self-report higher SWB than others;

Hypothesis 1–6: People with a higher income self-report higher SWB;

Hypothesis 1–7: People with a higher education self-report higher SWB.

1.2 Fashionable Consumption

Pierre Bourdieu examined consumption, leisure, art appreciation activities and life-styles of modern society in his later study of stratification. In his view, different models of lifestyle and taste is the means by which modern society manifests class distinctions between individuals and social groups, and is the principle of social distinction (Boudieu 1979). In general, the more fashionable one's lifestyle is, the more optimistic one assesses the current economic system, economic welfare and the future (Hayo and Seifert 2003). We hypothesize hypothesis:

Hypothesis 2–1: Individuals who perceive their consumption as more fashionable will self-report higher SWB.

1.3 Relative Deprivation

A sense of relative deprivation is primarily composed of social comparison. Research has found that individuals' sense of SWB will be lower when comparing themselves with the happy people (upward comparison), and higher when comparison is made with those more unfortunate (downward comparison). Social comparison has strong predictive power of satisfaction judgments in many areas (Wu 2000). Some work (Stutzer 2004) suggests that every individual is involved in some form of social comparison, and it is one's position relative to others that plays a decisive role in assessment. Other work (Alpizar et al. 2005) suggests that most people care about relative income, and happiness is largely based on having a relatively higher income. The hypothesis has been supported by some empirical research (Clark and Oswald 1996; Easterlin 1995). We thus hypothesize:

Hypothesis 3–1: Individual SWB will be inversely correlated with relative deprivation.

1.4 Work Units

The social division of “danwei” or work units has received some attention in Chinese social studies (Wang and Feng 2005); prior to the economic reforms of Deng Xiaoping, much of Chinese society was organized around the place of one’s employment. The work unit would relate an individual to the Chinese Communist party. The relation of one’s place of employment to elites within the government still exerts influence on opportunities in life and may thus be related to SWB. Groups closer to the center of power and market-oriented sectors may thus have a stronger sense of SWB. We thus hypothesize:

Hypothesis 4–1: People in state-owned sector will have higher SWB than others;

Hypothesis 4–2: People have a stronger sense of SWB in work units close to the center of power.

1.5 Regional Division

A city’s administrative level may have an impact on people’s subjective well-being. People in municipalities, cities with independent planning, and other sub-provincial cities may have a stronger sense of subjective well-being than those in other cities. People in the capital city of a province may have a stronger sense of subjective well-being than those in other regions. These cities may have advantages of location and material resources and may also be the focus of the government policy to stimulate economic activity (Lian and Jianzhong 2006). Quality of life is influenced by the living environment (Helburn 1982) and should be taken into account in research on SWB. We hypothesize:

Hypothesis 5–1: Individuals in cities with a higher administrative level will have higher SWB.

2 Methods

Data come from the “China General Social Survey” (CGSS 2003) organized and implemented by the Department of Sociology of Renmin University of China and Hong Kong University of Science and Technology from October to November in 2003. The survey covered 28 provinces (municipalities), 92 counties (districts), 299 streets, 590 neighborhood committees (community) and 5,900 urban households of the whole nation except Hong Kong, Macao, Taiwan, Tibet, Qinghai and Ningxia. This survey uses the PPS sampling method which starts from the provincial danwei to the community, then extracts 10 households in each community by systematic sampling, and then selects one person as the subject of investigation in each household by using Kish table. This sampling is conducted based on the fifth national census data in 2000. This survey selected 5,900 persons whose age ranged from 18 to 69 as the subject of investigation. In the end, 5,894 questionnaires were completed through face-to-face interview.

Several measures of subjective well-being have been proposed. Veenhoven (1996:22) suggests using the question, “Overall, how happy do you think you are?” with possible responses of “very happy, generally happy, not happy, or not at all happy.” Cummins (1997) notes that questions such as “How do you feel about your life overall?” have been widely used as indicators of SWB. The General Social Survey (GSS) of United States in 1972 assessed SWB with the question, “Overall, are you very happy, happy, or not very happy these days?” (Easterlin 2001; McBride 2001). Some investigations have modified the question as “Overall, how satisfied are you with your life?”, asking the respondents to give a score between 1 and 10 (1 representing the most unsatisfactory, 10 the most satisfactory) (Frey and Stutzer 2000; Charness and Grosskopf 2001), or between 0 to 10 (0 indicating completely unsatisfactory, 10 completely satisfactory) (The German SocioEconomic Panel) (Ehrhardt et al. 2000; Gerlach and Stephan 1996), or between 0 to 1

(Stutzer 2004). On the Chinese General Social Survey (CGSS 2003) the SWB question is, “Overall, how do you feel about your own life”, and the possible responses are “(1). very unhappy (2). unhappy (3). generally happy (4). happy (5). very happy.” The question in CGSS 2003 is similar to the one used in the GSS, and is used here as the dependent variable in the analysis.

As noted above the factors used as independent variables in the analysis we divide into five groups for expositional convenience. The first group consists of demographic factors including gender, age, political status, marital status and employment status, personal annual income and level of education. Means and standard deviations for these variables (where appropriate) are given in Table 1.

The second set of factors consists of variables that indicate relative deprivation. There are three questions in the CGSS 2003 that can be used to assess the sense of relative deprivation of the participants; these ask the respondent to compare themselves (i) with their peers, (ii) with themselves 3 years ago, and (iii) with the normal people in their eyes, to see if the quality of life is “better”, “no different”, “worse” or “hard to say”. The response “better” scores 3, “no different” scores 2, “worse” scores 1 and the “hard to say” is treated as missing. Then we sum the scores of the three questions as the total score of respondent’s sense of relative deprivation. The lower the score, the stronger sense of relative deprivation.

The third set of factors relates to consumption attitude, the question J2 in questionnaire in CGSS 2003 provides a scale about people’s consumption behavior. A high score indicates more fashionable consumption and a low score indicates a traditional consumer. Responses of “no answer”, “not know”, “not applicable” and “other” are considered as a missing response. There are thirteen questions in the CGSS 2003 that can be used to assess the consumption attitude of the participants; these ask the respondent to indicate the extent of their agreement with statements such as: (i) I always go shopping at the more famous store, (ii) I always go out by taking taxi or a private car, and (iii) Consumer durables in my home mostly are brand-name, high-grade, etc. If an individual chooses a response of “very consistent” for the above questions, it is given a score of 2, “moderately consistent” a score of 1, “very inconsistent” –2 and “moderately inconsistent” –1. The sum of the scores of the thirteen questions is taken as the total score of respondent’s attitude towards consumption. The higher the score, the more fashionable the individual considers their consumption.

The fourth group of factors concerns variables related to an individual’s work unit or “danwei” division. An individual’s current work unit is used for individual’s currently employed and an individual’s last work unit is used for those who are unemployed. The work unit is classified as one of: government department, state-owned enterprise, state-owned institution/collective enterprise, individual business, private enterprise/institution, or foreign-invested enterprise.

The fifth set of factors concern region which is classified as one of: town, county, prefectural-level city, or municipality/provincial capital city.

Measures of SWB are often assumed to be ordinal variables in the economics literature, while in psychology and sociology they are often taken as a continuous variable. In general, similar results have been obtained when using ordered logit, probit, or complementary log–log models with ordinal outcome data or ordinary least squares with continuous data (Ferrer-i-Carbonell and Frijters 2004; Blanchflower and Oswald 2004). Ferrer-i-Carbonell and Frijters (2004) found that results were highly consistent on five key variables (age, income, marriage, children, and health) with the two analysis methods. Complementary log–log link regression models were used in this analysis but similar findings were obtained when using ordinary least squares.

The complementary log–log link regression model (McCullagh and Nelder 1989; Long 1997) takes the following form

$$\text{link}[\gamma_j(x)] = \theta_j - \beta^T X = \theta_j - [\beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \cdots + \beta_m X_m]$$

where here “link” is chosen as complementary Log–log and $\gamma_j(x)$ is the cumulative probability of the for “jth” category with covariate values x i.e. the probability of being in category j or less, θ_j is the threshold of the “jth” category; $X_1 - X_m$ are the independent variable of and $\beta_1 - \beta_m$ are the regression coefficients of these variables. The log–log link is used so as to avoid issues of misinterpretation of odds ratios which arise with common outcomes; qualitative conclusions, however, are similar irrespective of how the outcome is modeled. Coefficients for the model are exponentiated to obtain percentage increases in the log probability of higher SWB.

Six ordinal log–log link regression models are employed. Each model includes all of the demographic factors. The first model includes only the demographic factors; models 2–5 include the demographic factors along with just one of the four other sets of factors i.e. model 2 includes demographic factors and the consumption variable; model 3 includes demographic factors and the relative deprivation variable; model 4 demographic factors and the work unit variable; model 5 demographic factors and the region variable; and the sixth model includes all five sets of factors.

3 Results

Responses to the outcome question, “Overall, how do you feel about your life?” are summarized in Table 2. Results from each of the six models are presented in Table 3. As seen in model 1, the demographic factors account for 9.1% of the variation in SWB and most demographic variables have a significant correlation with the SWB. Females self-reported higher SWB than males. The relationship between age and SWB is U-shaped. People with higher income self-report higher SWB. Party members reported higher SWB than those who were not. Married individuals self-reported higher SWB than unmarried individuals. Students, the employed and the retired reported higher SWB than the unemployed.

More specifically, the log probability of higher SWB is 24% lower for men than women; the log probability of higher SWB decreases with age but then starts to increase at a turning point of around 50 years; the log probability of higher SWB increases by 81% as the personal annual income increases logarithmically one level; the log probability of higher SWB is 25% higher for party members than for others; the log probability of higher SWB is 56% higher for married individuals than for unmarried individuals; contrasted with the unemployed, the log probability of higher SWB for the employed, for the retired and for students are, respectively 26, 25 and 87% higher. Of the demographic variables only education was not found to be statistically significant in predicting SWB. Based on these findings, our research hypotheses above concerning demographic variables are all confirmed with the only exception being education, Hypothesis 1–7.

The consumption variable was added to the demographic variables in the regression in model 2. The results show that, controlling for the demographic factors, the more fashionable an individual’s consumption is, the stronger their sense of SWB. The log probability of higher SWB is increased by 4% for each level increase in an individual’s conception of how fashionable their consumption is. The finding confirms our second

research hypothesis. Note also that when the consumption variable is included in the model, the regression coefficient for income is somewhat attenuated; this could provide evidence for fashionable consumption mediating the effect of income but this would require a fuller investigation.

The relative deprivation variable is added to the demographic factors in the regression in model 3. This result is a substantial increase in explanatory power of the model which rises from a Cox and Snell *R*-Square of 9.1 to 21.9%, suggesting that this variable plays a central role in determining SWB. The log probability of higher SWB is increased by 49% for individuals with a relative deprivation score that is one level higher (i.e. who feel less relative deprivation). This confirms our third research hypothesis.

The work unit variable is added to the demographic factors in the regression in model 4. The contribution of this variable's explanatory power for SWB is relatively minimal. Nevertheless, the findings suggest that individuals working in state-owned institutions have a stronger sense of SWB than those working in government departments. All the other work unit levels do not appear statistically significantly different than working in a government department. Our findings confirm research hypothesis 4–1 but do not provide evidence for research hypotheses 4–2.

The region variable is added to the demographic factors in the regression in model 5. This variable also makes a relatively minor contribution to the explanatory power of the model. The results do however, provide some evidence that the higher the administrative level of the city, the lower the subjective well-being. For example, when contrasted with individuals living in a town, the SWB of people in municipality/provincial capital city and prefectural-level city have a log probability of higher SWB which is, respectively lower by 15 and 10%. This provides evidence against our fifth research hypothesis.

Model 6 includes all five sets of explanatory factors. As can be seen by comparing the explanatory power of model 3 and model 6, most of the explanatory power of the model is given by the demographic variables and the relative deprivation variable. When all of the factors are in the model, none of the work unit levels or regional division levels remain statistically significant at the 0.05 level. The effect sizes for the demographic factors are all attenuated except for marital status; employment status ceases to be statistically significant.

4 Discussion

Several findings have emerged from our analysis. First we have confirmed, for Chinese urban residents, some of the same relationships concerning factors related to SWB as had been previously reported for other populations. Namely, higher SWB is associated with being female, higher income, being married and being employed and that SWB has a U-shaped relationship with age.

One finding that was not as expected was that the higher the administrative level of the city is, the lower the SWB. This phenomenon may be somewhat similar to what is found in cross-border research, which has shown that individuals in rich countries do not necessarily have higher SWB than those in poor countries. For example, in the World Values Survey in 1999–2000, Puerto Rico had the highest overall rank of happiness and life satisfaction whereas America ranked 15th. An individual's sense of subjective well-being includes more than material targets, such as income, wealth, growth rate, etc., which are often used to measure individual welfare and national development (Wong et al. 2006). Another possible explanation for our unexpected finding concerning regional division may be related to our study being restricted to urban residents. This group may be relatively homogeneous with respect to being situated in reasonable economic conditions. Material conditions such as

income and wealth help bring a greater sense of SWB, especially in meeting people's basic needs. However, after basic needs have been met, it may be that better material conditions produce diminishing marginal utility (Maslow 1970:100) or even no increase in SWB (Fahey and Smyth 2004:23). It is possible that because the study was restricted to urban residents, nearly the entirety of sample had their basic needs met. That individuals living in cities with higher administrative levels had lower SWB may then in fact indicate a residual sense of relative deprivation not captured by our relative deprivation variable. Finally, it should be noted that individuals answer the questions concerning SWB in accordance with their own specific situations and their way of perceiving and judging happiness. Individuals living in cities with higher administrative levels may simply having different ways of perceiving and judging happiness.

Another somewhat surprising finding was that although individuals working in state-owned institutions have a stronger sense of SWB than those working in a government department, none of the other work unit levels were statistically significantly different from working in a government department. One possible explanation for this is that an individual's SWB from work may arise from a combination of power/opportunities that proximity to the government allows on the one hand and the exercise of professional expertise on the other (He and Changcheng 2002). Individuals working for state-owned institutions may have both proximity to the government and also more opportunities to exercise their professional expertise as the nature of their work is more flexible, more professional and more autonomous. Individuals working for government departments may have less discretionary freedom; individuals in other work units do not have proximity to the government.

Among the variables in the models, "relative deprivation" seemed to have the most explanatory power. Our finding on the importance of relative deprivation is consistent with research conducted by psychologist and Nobel Laureate Kahneman. Kahneman put forward a "prospect theory", that temporal and social comparison can contribute to SWB. Likewise Micius found that in considering twelve fields of satisfaction (satisfaction with health status, family satisfaction, etc.), seven demographic characteristics (age, gender, etc.) explained 53% of variation of general life satisfaction and 36% of variation of general life happiness, while using just three gap variables ("target—achievement gap", "social reference gap", "gap between the present between the best experience"), explained 45% of variation of general life satisfaction and 38% of variation of general life happiness.

Our finding on the importance of relative deprivation may indicate that Chinese urban residents are living in a society still deeply influenced by a culture of egalitarianism in wealth, reinforced by repeated government promises of common prosperity over a economically polarized society (Lu 2002:41). China's cultural tradition is often more concerned about equality of outcomes rather than equality of rights and opportunities. Being faced with rapid economic changes and a widening gap between the rich and the poor, comparisons (with other individuals and with the past and future expectations) may pose a significant threat to the SWB of Chinese urban residents. The greater the intensity of social changes is, the greater potential there may be for inequalities and for a perceived relative deprivation that challenges individuals' sense of SWB.

Our analysis is subject to several limitations. First, we have used a single item measure for SWB and such single item measures may suffer from unreliability. The use of a single item on the questionnaire may also be subject to bias arising from tendencies to give a socially favorable response. The advantage of using this measure is that it was included in the CGSS data and is thus available for a large number of Chinese urban residents; however, relying on this single measure from the CGSS renders the data inapplicable for cross-national or cross-cultural research (Huang 2006).

Second, although our constructs of relative deprivation and fashionable consumption used multiple items, the measures employed in this study have not yet been used extensively and further work is needed to evaluate their psychometric properties and construct validity. There are perhaps particular challenges to the construct validity of these measures in the context of research in China. Two of the three items used in the measure of relative deprivation made reference to peers or other individuals. However, Chinese culture is greatly influenced by networks ('ren qing'); the attainment of subjective well-being may reflect a certain reflexivity of self-worth (Zhao 2001). Such issues with regard to relative deprivation are not unique to, but perhaps especially relevant for, the context of China. With regard to fashionable consumption, if what in fact matters for SWB is an individual's position in the social system (Weber 1997/1996 [second volume]:253–260; Liu and Lulu 2005), our fashionable consumption variable may be serving as an imperfect proxy for this.

Third, other than the demographic factors and relative deprivation, the effect sizes for the other explanatory factors are modest and the practical significance of the findings concerning these other variables may thus be limited. Moreover, with the demographic factors, there is debate over the usefulness of such variables in explaining quality of life; many demographic factors are not subject to change. Our findings with regard to relative deprivation may thus be both the most interesting and the most practically important.

Further research is required but it may be that the most immediate threat to SWB in urban China is their living in a society changing dramatically and full of both opportunities and competition. As concerns SWB, the economic transformation that China is undergoing is however, two-sided since our results indicate that increasing incomes and increasingly fashionable consumption both increase the SWB of Chinese urban residents.

Although the findings in this study are of some interest, the overall explanatory power of our largest model remains at 26.2%, indicating that there are a large number of important and unexamined factors not included in analysis. Variables such as social support may be particularly important. Future research could attempt to explore these other factors further.

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Table 1

The definition of variables and statistical description

Variable	Sample size	Mean	Standard deviation	Nature/measure	Definition of variables
SWB	5,874	3.27	0.81	Ordinal	1 = very unhappy, 2 = unhappy, 3 = generally happy, 4 = happy, 5 = very happy
Gender	5,894	0.48	0.50	Nominal	1 = male, 0 = female
Age	5,894	43.38	13.11	Scale	Minimum 15, maximum 77
Political status	5,894	0.18	0.39	Nominal	0 = no, 1 = yes
Marital status	5,894	0.89	0.31	Nominal	0 = unmarried, 1 = married (including divorced)
Employment status	5,702	N/A	N/A	Nominal	0 = Unemployed/laid-off, 1 = employed, 2 = retired, 3 = student
Personal annual income (logarithmic)	4,491	3.89	0.39	Scale	Minimum 1.70, maximum 5.48
Level of education	5,631	10.87	3.07	Scale	Primary school = 6, junior high school = 9, senior high school (vocational school) = 12, college = 15, undergraduate = 16, graduate and above = 19
Sense of relative deprivation	5,066	5.44	1.30	Scale	Minimum 0, maximum 9
Level of living place	5,893	N/A	N/A	Nominal	0 = town, 1 = county, 2 = prefectural-level city, 3 = municipality/ provincial capital city
Work unit nature	3,214	N/A	N/A	Nominal	0 = government department, 1 = state-owned enterprise, 2 = state-owned institution, 3 = collective enterprise/institution, 4 = individual business, 5 = private enterprise/ institution, 6 = foreign- invested enterprise
Consumption concept	3,963	-12.79	6.40	Scale	Minimum -26, maximum 18

Table 2

The overall sense of life of urban residents in CGSS 2003

	Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
No answer	17	.3	.3	.3
Do not know/Not sure	3	.1	.1	.3
Very unhappy	134	2.3	2.3	2.6
Unhappy	619	10.5	10.5	13.1
Generally happy	2926	49.6	49.6	62.8
Happy	1896	32.2	32.2	94.9
Very happy	299	5.1	5.1	100.0
Total	5894	100.0	100.0	

Table 3

Complementary log-log regression model coefficients for predicting SWB

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4		Model 5		Model 6	
	B	(SE)	B	(SE)	B	(SE)	B	(SE)	B	(SE)	B	(SE)
Control variable												
Gender (reference group: female)	-.268***	.036	-.266***	.044	-.205***	.040	-.260***	.036	-.282***	.037	-.194***	.049
Age	-.098***	.011	-.096***	.014	-.065***	.013	-.098***	.011	-.097***	.011	-.057***	.016
Square of age	.001***	.000	.001***	.000	.001***	.000	.001***	.000	.001***	.000	.001***	.000
Personal annual income (logarithmic)	.591***	.054	.458***	.071	.259***	.062	.589***	.055	.635***	.056	.202*	.082
Level of education	-.003	.007	-.011	.008	.004	.007	-.007	.007	.000	.007	-.003	.009
Political status (reference group: non-party member)	.225***	.045	.187**	.055	.139**	.049	.216***	.046	.207***	.046	.104+	.060
Marital status (reference group: unmarried)	.444***	.080	.463***	.104	.530***	.090	.447***	.080	.407***	.080	.528***	.116
Employment status (reference group: unemployed/laid-off)												
Employed	.231***	.053	.211**	.064	.121*	.059	.248***	.057	.212***	.054	.123	.075
Retired	.221**	.071	.160+	.084	.126	.078	.241**	.072	.216**	.071	.078	.092
Student	.628**	.240	.911*	.444	.434	.265	.645**	.240	.680**	.241	.762	.537
Independent variable												
Consumption conception			.041***	.004							.030***	.004
Sense of relative deprivation					.396***	.018					.352***	.022
Nature of the last working danwei (reference group: government department)												
State-owned enterprise							-.104*	.050			-.127+	.065
State-owned institution							.148*	.064			.029	.086
Collective enterprise/institution							-.118	.087			.011	.120
Individual business							.040	.064			.024	.082
Private enterprise/institution							-.087	.086			-.049	.120
Foreign-invested enterprise							-.001	.166			.113	.254
Level of living place (reference group: town)												
Municipality/provincial capital city									-.166**	.058	-.138+	.076

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4		Model 5		Model 6	
	B	(SE)	B	(SE)	B	(SE)	B	(SE)	B	(SE)	B	(SE)
Prefectural-level city,												
County												
Threshold												
[lifefeel = 1.00]	-3.470***	.310	-4.399***	.404	-1.783***	.345	-3.523***	.314	-3.362***	.315	-2.515***	.457
[lifefeel = 2.00]	-1.542***	.291	-2.470***	.386	.132	.328	-1.595***	.295	-1.434***	.297	-.580	.440
[lifefeel = 3.00]	.597*	.289	-.341	.383	2.349***	.328	.548+	.293	.709*	.295	1.607***	.440
[lifefeel = 4.00]	1.818***	.290	.883*	.383	3.701***	.332	1.775***	.294	1.931***	.296	2.938***	.443
Pearson Chi-Square	58147.008***	14210.244***	80061.062***	53633.014***	54439.972***	35839.841***						
-2 Log Likelihood	9324.317***	6554.458***	7942.120***	9509.246***	9518.867***	5579.270***						
Cox and Snell R-Square	.091		.138		.219		.096		.094		.237	
N	5894		5894		5894		5894		5894		5894	

The dependent variable of the model is "The self-assessment of overall feeling of your life" and the link function is "Complementary Log-log," B un-standardized regression coefficient, SE standard error

+ $p < .10$;
 * $p < .05$;
 ** $p < .01$;
 *** $p < .001$