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The Development of the Country Satisfaction Scale

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LOYOLA UNIVERSITY CHICAGO

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE COUNTRY SATISFACTION SCALE

A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED TO
THE FACULTY OF THE SCHOOL OF EDUCATION
IN CANDIDACY FOR THE DEGREE OF
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

PROGRAM IN COUNSELING PSYCHOLOGY

BY

DAEWON KIM

CHICAGO, IL

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I first want to thank God for showing me this path of my life and leading me to it. It is Him that showed the purpose in my life, and it is His grace that I made it this far. I want to thank my parents and family for supporting me financially and believing in me that I will achieve. It is through my parents that I had so many privileges to successfully complete my degree without worrying about my daily life. I also want to thank Loyola University Chicago's Counseling Psychology program. Before joining the program, I only knew that I wanted to help people, but lacked knowledges in how to help. It is through the experiences in the Counseling Psychology program that I learned about social justice, prevention, equity, and systemic care for mental health support, which I now hold so dear in my heart. It is also through Dr. Eunju Yoon that I have a good understanding of the qualities to be a good researcher and a caring mentor. Finally, I would like to send my gratitude to all my friends for holding me dear in their hearts and supporting me.

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ABSTRACT

In light of nation-wide events and its impact on mental health, this study developed the Country Satisfaction Scale (CSS) to measure individual's country satisfaction. This study interviewed 7 participants in the United States to generate scale items, collected data for preliminary factor analysis ($N = 371$), and for final factor analyses ($N = 802$). The results confirmed a 3-factor (*Systemic Structures, Equality & Acceptance, and Resources & Benefits*) structure with two additional complementary factor models: second-order 3-factor model and bifactor-($S-1$) model with general (G) factor and 2 specific factors. Further validity tests also confirmed the CSS. The results of this study provide a tool to measure the impact of country on individual's well-being. Other implications and limitations are discussed further.

CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

The Year 2020 and Mental Health

The year 2020 in the United States was a year full of events that influenced everybody in the country. In case of events or crises that impact the society at the country-level, they often impact the members of the society at multiple facets, including physical, emotional, and mental health. In 2020, major nation-wide events such as the spread of COVID-19, the Black Lives Matter movement and the events related to the 2020 Presidential Election, clearly showed their impact on the individuals and the U.S. society as a whole, as well as providing insight into the interaction between individual and environment, and its influence on mental health. Overall, these events highlighted the importance of the national environment in the well-being of the individuals residing in the United States.

In February and March of 2020, the COVID-19 began to be spread around some regions within the United States, which progressed into a nation-wide, and eventually into the world-wide pandemic. During the course of the pandemic, studies have shown that the majority of adults in the United States reported negative impact on their mental health by concerns and stress over COVID-19 (Panchal et al., 2020). This is further supported by the Center for Disease Control (CDC)'s guidelines specific to managing mental health issues impacted by the pandemic (CDC, 2021). In addition to the stress directly related to the pandemic (e.g. threat of contracting the coronavirus, isolation due to quarantine, mask mandates, etc.), people have expressed stress and negative impact on mental health over the reactions of the larger society about the pandemic, such as the U.S. government's control of

the coronavirus (Leonhardt, 2020), how certain people behaved in relation to the safety protocols, the overflow of the news on the pandemic in the media, the unemployment rate, and the politicization of the pandemic. With the ongoing stress of the pandemic, the reports shed light not only on the direct impact of nation-wide or country-wide events on people's mental health, but also the impact the reaction of the larger environment, such as the U.S. government, the U.S. economy, and the U.S. media to the said events on the mental health of the individual members within the society.

In May 2020, after the death of George Floyd, a Black-identified male, by the U.S. police, the Black Lives Matter (BLM) movement, a sociopolitical movement that began in 2013 protesting for the police brutality and systemic racism against Black-identified people (Black Lives Matter, 2013), gained more national attention. Large-scale protests to support the BLM movement occurred throughout multiple cities and continued for months. The protests included not only the individuals that identified as Black, but others that disagreed with the unfair treatment of the Black-identified population by the U.S. police and the systemic racism in the U.S. society. Research and reports have shown that the BLM protests influenced the mental health of Black-identified people (Gattuso & Chapple, 2020), as well as non-Black identified individuals who agreed with the BLM movement. Conversely, the BLM protests also influenced the mental health of people who did not agree with the reasons for the BLM movement. Furthermore, regardless of people's agreement/disagreement with the reasons for the BLM movement, people's mental health was also impacted due to the ongoing pandemic whilst the BLM protests were occurring. Finally, much like the COVID-19 pandemic and its impact, the mental health of the people in the United States was also impacted by the reaction from larger systemic structures, such as the U.S. police, the U.S. politicians, and the U.S. media, as well as the interaction between these structures (e.g., the

police officers not being criminally charged by the death of Breonna Taylor). Finally, people in the U.S. expressed distress over the representation of the racial conflict accumulated over the U.S. history through the BLM protests. Again, the BLM protests influenced the mental health of individuals directly, interacting with the ethnic, political, and other identities of the individuals, but also indirectly by the larger systemic structures, through the communities that are developed through the common individual identities.

Finally, beginning from September until the inauguration of the U.S. President in January of 2021, people living in the United States were closely following the election process of the 2020 U.S. Presidential Election. This particular election process included some unprecedented issues, such as the mail-in votes in response to the ongoing pandemic, the political conflicts verifying the election results, and the attack on the U.S. Capitol. As evidenced similarly with the COVID-19 pandemic and the BLM protests, individuals' mental health appeared to be directly impacted by the election process, and indirectly through the communities created by the individuals sharing common identity, such as ethnic identity, regional identity (e.g., Midwest, South, Sun Belt, Rust Belt, etc.), and socioeconomic identity. During the election process, people in the U.S. expressed distress over the election process itself, but also over other events that occurred in society in connection to the election process. For example, people continued to express negative impact on their mental health with the slower rollout of the COVID-19 vaccines. While the rollout of the vaccines is a medical and institutional issue because this became an issue during the election process, the issue also became largely a political issue.

Based on the manifestation of the nation-wide events in 2020 in the U.S., there are few observations that could be connected to individual mental health. One is the way an individual perceives their identity, a particular facet of self in contact with the environment,

and how the identity interacts with multiple facets of the environment. Using the BLM protests as an example, the mental health of Black-identified people was negatively impacted because the protest was a representation of how their identity was negatively interacting with the environment: the U.S. police, the limited opportunities for success for the Black-identified people, the systemic racism present in the U.S. society, and the history of the oppression of the Black people in the U.S. Another observation is that in case of a nationwide event, such as the aforementioned examples, the individual identities are connected to the numerous environmental variables within the society, which can be all connected to one entity: The United States. That is, the individual identities (e.g. Black-identified, Republican, male), the community membership (e.g. Black-identified populations, Rust Belt population), systemic structures (e.g. economy, government, culture), and time (e.g. history of racism, pandemic era), are all attached to the United States (e.g. Black-identified individual in the U.S., residents of the Rust Belt states in the U.S., the U.S. police, and the U.S. history). Therefore, these observations bring the importance of the United States in individual's well-being. Then, in counseling psychology research, how do we observe the impact of the United States on the well-being of the people in the United States? Also, how do we define the United States, a country, as a research variable? What would be the appropriate definition of the United States (*nation* vs. *country* vs. *society*) in counseling psychology research?

Definition of Country

This study will define the United States as country, over nation or society. From everyday conversation to media coverage to research, country, nation, and society have been used interchangeably. However, looking at the definitions of each term, it is apparent that there are clear distinctions. *Country* is defined as a community of people sharing identity, history, and cultures, inhabiting a particular geographical region or territory (Oxford

Languages). The definition of country emphasizes the geographical location. Nation emphasizes the systemic structures, such as government. Finally, society emphasizes the constant interaction of communities, with individuals holding memberships to certain communities. The reason for this study to select *country* over *nation* or *society* is due to the make-up of the people in a country. That is, using the United States as an example, there are a significant number of people who may not identify with the shared characteristics of the U.S. or have limited interaction with the U.S. systemic structures, such as international students, undocumented residents, and refugees. However, the daily lives of these individuals are still impacted by the U.S. society. For example, the well-being of international students is influenced by the changes in the U.S. student visa policy. The fact that these individuals are physically located within the U.S. creates interaction with various communities in the U.S., and the systemic structures in the U.S., which could all potentially impact their well-being. Therefore, this study will use *country* to define the larger environmental variables interacting with individual's well-being.

Using the framework of the *Bioecological model* by Bronfenbrenner (1979, 1994), the environmental variables that could influence an individual through interaction with each other can be categorized into the five ecological systems: microsystem, mesosystem, exosystem, macrosystem, and chronosystem. Using the above examples and observing the interactions of environmental variables on the individuals within the United States, it can be suggested that *country* is capable of being integrated into all variables within the ecological systems. That is, country can conceptually encompass all five environmental variables, and can be conceptually proposed that when one speaks about the influence of country of residence on well-being, country should be able to spark and associate the influence of all five environmental variables on individual's well-being. To explain, let's use Individual A as

an example: A is an Asian international student who came to the U.S. for the first time in the Fall, 2020 and currently attends school in the rural area in Louisiana. Given A's identities, A may be experiencing negative interactions with their environment at multiple levels. At microsystem level, A could be receiving negative impact on their well-being by a lack of peer support, because A does not know anybody in the U.S. At mesosystem level, A could be receiving negative impact through their difficulty maintaining the work-life balance because while A lacks peer support in the U.S., the amount of work in the U.S. school is demanding. At exosystem level, as an Asian individual, A could be receiving negative impact on their well-being due to the lack of Asian community in the rural areas of Louisiana. At macrosystem level, A could be receiving negative impact on their well-being through the discriminatory culture toward ethnic minorities by some of the U.S. people living in the rural areas of Louisiana. Finally, at the chronosystem level, A could be receiving negative impact on their well-being through the discriminatory attitude particularly toward Asian-identified people by some people of the U.S. in rural areas of Louisiana due to the allegations that the COVID-19 pandemic began from China. The example of Individual A presents the collective influence of the environmental variables within a country on individual well-being through the interaction between A's multiple identities. Therefore, phenomenologically, integrating *country* as an encompassing environmental variable makes sense to better understand individuals' well-being. However, can this observation be empirically supported through scientific research?

Limitations on Existing Research

In psychology research, some researchers have already attempted to observe the relationship between well-being, one of the most researched variables in counseling psychology, and environmental variables ranging from various communities (e.g.,

accessibility of ethnic minority community, belongingness to social media group, etc.) to systemic structures, such as regulation of markets, level of inequality in society, etc. (Abbott et al., 2016; Alvarez-Diaz et al., 2010; Bhullar et al., 2012; Bixter, 2015; Bjornskov et al., 2008; Brulde, 2010; Cavallo et al., 2015; Choma et al., 2009; Chu et al., 2018; Eksi & Kaya, 2017; Frank et al., 2016; Heukamp & Arino, 2011; Kogan et al., 2017; Koots-Ausmees & Realo, 2015, 2016; Li & Bond, 2010; Ngoo et al., 2015; Nonnenmacher & Friedrichs, 2013; Obydenkova & Salahodjaev, 2017; Ruberton et al., 2016; Schalembier, 2016). Furthermore, other researchers have already used terms, such as country satisfaction or national satisfaction, that refers to the individual's feeling toward the country through their cognitive evaluation of various environmental variables related to country or nation (Morrison et al., 2011; Moyano-Diaz & Palomo-Velez, 2018). While the above research results certainly show significant relationships between the selected environmental variables and the individual's well-being, and the existence of country satisfaction, some limitations still exist, which is largely associated with the methodology of assessing country satisfaction.

Looking at the evolution of research on the influence of country satisfaction on well-being, it has taken two predominant routes (Bjornskov et al., 2008; Morrison et al., 2011; Moyano-Diaz & Palomo-Velez, 2018; Nonnenmacher & Friedrichs, 2013) to predict individual's well-being. In the first research model, the limitation lies in the method that country satisfaction is measured: being directly asked about individual's satisfaction with country. In fact, the study by Moyano-Diaz and Palomo-Velez (2018) asked one question on country satisfaction: do you feel happy with the country you live in? Although simplicity of a construct is preferred in research, well represented by Occam's Razor, the validity and reliability of the questions measuring country satisfaction have yet been provided. Furthermore, in these research (Morrison et al., 2011; Moyano-Diaz & Palomo-Velez, 2018),

the environmental variables are generally objective and focused on economic variables (e.g., GDP per capita, household income, access to resources). However, as the other branch of research on the relationship between country satisfaction and individual's well-being presents, other variables beyond economic factors within a country also predicts country satisfaction.

The other branch of research investigating the relationship between country satisfaction and individual well-being focused on observing multiple environmental variables, often defined as country-variables, on individual's life satisfaction (Bjornskov et al., 2008; Nonnenmacher & Friedrichs, 2013). This branch of research is also divided into two separate branches. One strand of research focus on the impact of select variables on individual satisfaction (Gorodzeisky et al., 2014; Liu et al., 2019; Obydenkova & Salahodjaev, 2017). While the results show significant connection between the select country-level variable and individual's well-being, some criticisms were made on whether a select country-level variable(s) sufficiently explained individual's well-being. That is, while the statistical analysis on the relationship(s) of the selected environmental variable(s) and subjective well-being may be significant, these variables are predominantly economic variables, and a significant amount of the variables are objective variables. In this branch of research, the variables used in research could be answered by yes/no format (e.g., marital status, availability of electricity, water, or Internet, etc.) or specific value (e.g., household income, number of income providers in the family, etc.). However, as will be shown below, the variables used in this branch of research may not sufficiently explain country satisfaction.

Another branch of research included a larger number of environmental variables from all ecological systems and measure their influence on subjective well-being. In this branch of research, most research are done as cross-country comparison. Examining the

influence of a large number of variables in research also has its limitations. While more complex statistical methodologies such as structural equation modeling, and path analyses have been developed to enable statistical analyses with a larger number of research variable(s), when more variables are involved in data analysis, it becomes increasingly challenging to obtain the desired results (Kaaks et al., 2002) due to the inevitable increase of measurement error. With a larger number of variables, the probability that the measured data does not accurately reflect the true value accumulates (Cochran, 1968). In counseling psychology research, in which research is conducted using psychological measures, questionnaires, and inventories per research variable, a larger number of research variables inevitably accumulates the probability that the measure does not accurately reflect the variable it was intended to measure. This ultimately damages the reliability of the data. As such, some research has focused on cross-country comparisons of the influence of large number of environmental variables on individual's well-being (Bjornskov et al., 2008; Eksi & Kaya, 2016; Heukamp & Arino, 2011; Kogan et al. 2017; Koots-Ausmees & Realo, 2016; Nonnenmacher & Friedrichs, 2013). In cross-country comparison studies, simple statistical methods, such as t-tests or ANOVA tests are sufficient to provide significant results. While the cross-country comparison studies still provide valuable implications through simple research model, the results are difficult to be applied to single individuals. To create an appropriate real-life application of the results to individual level is challenging. Since the focus of counseling psychology research is to investigate the role of research variables on well-being and happiness of individuals, examining the comprehensive influence of the environment on subjective well-being through a simple research format is needed.

The Present Study

Purpose of the Study

The primary purpose of this study is to develop a way to measure the level of satisfaction that the country and many environmental variables within the country provide for the individual. In order to observe the influence of a large number of environmental variables in a statistically simple method, this study suggests *country* as a variable that encompasses the diverse environmental variables. Within a *country*, the environment, from other individuals to larger systemic structures and culture, are established and continuously interacts with the individual both directly and indirectly. As such, observing the influence of the variables within a *country* on individual seems appropriate for counseling psychology research. Due to the limitations in the existing research on the influence of country satisfaction on individual's well-being, this study intends to develop a measure that assess country satisfaction through multiple dimensions, using the U.S. context.

This study draws from Bronfenbrenner's *Bioecological Model* (1994) and *Social Identity Theory* (Tajfel et al. 1970) to examine country satisfaction. *Social Identity Theory*, which posits that an individual interacts with the environment through individual's identity (Tajfel et al., 1970), provides explanation to how an individual interacts with the environmental variables within the country. This study also posits that environmental variables within the country are organized conceptually through the *Bioecological Model* (Bronfenbrenner, 1994), especially due to the definition of country. In short, this study utilizes the *Bioecological Model* to structure country-level environmental variables to measure how an individual interacts with the country through his/her social identity.

Validity Check

In scale development, validity check is a required process, which tests construct

validity (Is the scale measuring what it is supposed to measure?) and criterion validity (How well does the scale predict the outcome of another measure?) (Boateng et al., 2018; Hinkin et al., 1997). Construct validity is examined by convergent validity (examining the relationship between measures that theoretically should be related to each other), discriminant validity (examining the relationship between measures that theoretically should not be related to each other; Boateng et al., 2018), and known-groups validity, which examines construct validity through demonstrating difference of scores between groups (Rodrigues et al., 2019). In this study, because the construct of CSS is newly developed through this study, there were no other available measure that measures the same construct. To examine the convergent validity of the CSS, *social well-being*, the evaluation of one's circumstance and functioning in society (Keyes, 1998), is selected. With social well-being, as previously mentioned, country and society have been interchangeably used; thus, selected to measure convergent validity. Examining the dimensions within social well-being, only select dimensions of social well-being (social integration & social actualization) will be included to test the construct validity of CSS, as the definitions of these factors match close to the definition of country satisfaction.

To measure the discriminant validity of the CSS, *patriotism* is selected. For patriotism, when *country* surfaces as a topic of discussion, patriotism is strongly associated to the discussion of country. For example, the discussion about the 9.11 terrorist attacks in the United States or London terrorist attacks in 2005 tends to bring up issues about patriotism (Osler, 2009). Patriotism is defined as love of nation and emotional attachment to the nation and national values (Adorno et al., 1950), which consists of blind patriotism (uncritical acceptances and support for the nation's policies and practices) and constructive patriotism (consideration for the well-being of one's own group with respect for the rights and welfare

of all members of the nation; Staub, 1997). The key difference between country satisfaction and patriotism is that country satisfaction does not include the intent for the betterment of the country in its expression. For example, an individual with a high level of blind patriotism may not necessarily have a high level of country satisfaction because the individual will strongly support the nation regardless of how he/she feels about certain aspects of the country, such as political orientation of the government, economic inequality, immigration policies, and public service qualities. For constructive patriotism, while constructive criticism of the country and country satisfaction may align, whether the individual feels happy/unhappy about the country and works to improve that aspect will be different. Therefore, patriotism and country satisfaction may seem related but also have distinct differences. Therefore, patriotism is selected to measure the discriminant validity of the CSS.

In observing the relationship between country-level variables and life satisfaction, some research has focused on the life satisfaction of immigrants (Chu et al., 2018; Frank et al., 2015; Kogan et al., 2017). These studies have selected a particular demographic group and found significant relationships between country-level variables and life satisfaction. Furthermore, a study by Eichhorn (2012) observed the relationship between unemployment and life satisfaction in different countries and found that country-level variables, such as GDP, income inequality, the proportion of women in labor force, and perception of autonomy in a society, significantly moderated the relationship between unemployment and life satisfaction. In sum, demographic information was used as an important variable in determining life satisfaction on specific populations, such as immigrants and the unemployed. Therefore, to examine known-groups validity, the relationship between demographic variables of and country satisfaction will be observed.

To examine the criterion validity of the CSS, life satisfaction was selected to examine

the predictive validity of the CSS. Previous research of country satisfaction has provided evidence that environmental variables, particularly ‘country-level’ variables (Bjornskov et al., 2008; Friedrichs & Nonnenmacher, 2013) have significant relationship with life satisfaction. As such, this study will examine the relationship between country satisfaction and life satisfaction.

Hypotheses

While developing and validating the Country Satisfaction Scale (CSS), the hypotheses will be tested:

1. The CSS will consist of multiple related factors. The CSS consists of four-factor structure.
2. In support of convergent validity, country satisfaction will have significant relationships with facets of social well-being.
3. In support of discriminant validity, country satisfaction will have not significant or weak relationships with facets of patriotism.
4. Country satisfaction will vary by demographic variables, in support of known-groups validity.
 - a. There will be significant difference in country satisfaction by gender.
 - b. There will be significant difference in country satisfaction by ethnicity.
 - c. There will be significant difference in country satisfaction by legal status.
 - d. There will be significant difference in country satisfaction by socioeconomic status.
 - e. There will be significant difference in country satisfaction by geographic region.
 - f. There will be significant difference in country satisfaction by community.

- g. There will be significant difference in country satisfaction by sexual orientation.
 - h. There will be significant difference in country satisfaction by education level.
5. Country satisfaction will significantly predict life satisfaction, in support of predictive validity.

Importance of the Study

This study is important in counseling psychology for the following reasons. Clinically, the results of this study could provide additional constructs to be considered during case conceptualization. During case conceptualization, clinicians are encouraged to include as diverse factors as possible to develop a comprehensive understanding of a client's issue. If this study can provide evidence that country satisfaction influences individual's life satisfaction, it could allow the clinicians to establish a stratified approach assessing the influence of environmental variables within a country on clients' presenting clinical concerns, especially when mental health is influenced by ongoing nation-wide events. This is evidenced by the reports that clients report poorer mental health when facing significant nation-wide events, such as the COVID-19 pandemic and the Presidential Election (University of Michigan Counseling and Psychology Services, 2021; Yan et al., 2020). As such, understanding the impact of the nation-wide events and the level of country satisfaction during nation-wide event(s) adds additional information in understanding client's issue.

One of the challenges in applying the result of counseling psychology research into clinical setting has been the limitations of power within psychotherapy to change the influence of environmental variables, especially when they involve larger communities and systemic structures (e.g., acceptance of specific individual identity within the U.S. culture). As a result, one way that clinicians have worked towards creating change at a larger scale is

through advocacy. Advocacy is defined as taking action to promote the well-being of clients, with an emphasis on removing or minimizing barriers to clients' well-being (American Counseling Association Advocacy Task Force, 2020). The results of this study would provide additional support to the role of advocacy of health service psychologists in clients' well-being. This is also in line with the role of health service psychologists as agents of social justice. In relation to social justice, the results of this study could present the between-group differences based on identities. As evidenced by the factors surrounding the BLM movement, it is possible that the results of this study could present that people with minority identities to have significantly less country satisfaction in particular domain(s). As agents of social justice, health services psychologists could advocate the needs of the minority identity groups to the systemic structures within a country that could create improvements.

Statistically, this study intends to provide a measure for individual's feeling toward multiple environmental variables within a country using simpler measurement. Previously, counseling psychology research would require multiple measures to assess the influence of the commensurate number of environmental variables on an individual. Developing a single measure that is able to assess the influence of multiple environmental variables would be able to provide statistical improvements to existing research methods (i.e., simplification of measurement and statistical analysis). Theoretically, the result of the study could provide evidence that a single variable can encompass the complexity of the bioecological model.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter is organized into five sections: 1) Overview of psychological research on person's interaction with environment, 2) Overview of research on the interaction between environmental variables and well-being in counseling psychology, 3) Review of research on country satisfaction, 4) Summary of the scale development and validation procedure, and 5) Review of variables selected for the validity check tests.

History of Psychological Research on Person's Interaction with Environment

Attempts to understand humans have been ongoing throughout history. Growing up, we have heard about a number of ancient philosophers, regardless of Western/Eastern cultural orientation, and their interpretation on humans, the human mind, the human emotions, and the human behavior. These philosophers claimed the validity of their interpretation of humans based on their observations. For example, Aristotle (384-322 BCE) defined humans as creatures who are bound to procreate, develop complex communities, and enjoy using imaginations, to reach *eudaimonia*, happiness (Newman & Newman, 2010). In ancient Chinese philosophy, Mencius (372-289 BCE), who believed in the inherent goodness in human nature at birth, and Xunzi (310-235 BCE), who believed that human nature at birth is without morals, have provided their interpretation of the human nature (Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy). As attempts to understand the human nature have continued throughout history, one critical shortcoming to these explanations was that it lacked objective, empirical support. It is not until the mid-to-late 1800s there is a shift in ways to understand the human nature.

Psychology, a study of mind and behavior (Merriam-Webster), was originally nested under philosophy. In mid-to-late 1800s, psychology began to be defined as science and began the separation from philosophy (Baker & Sperry, 2021). Wilhelm Wundt (1832-1920) founded the first lab focusing specifically on psychological research in 1879 and psychology began to be established as a separate field of science with empirical supports (Schwarz & Pfister, 2016). In 1890, William James (1842-1910) published his book, *The principles of psychology*, which included the *theory of self*. In *theory of self*, James distinguished the concept of self into “Me”, a separate individual a person refers to when describing their own experiences, and “I”, the self that is aware of who they are and what they have done in life (Cooper, 1992). In James’ definition, an individual can be perceived to possess a quality that is continuous and conscious (“I”), and a quality that is reactive and relative (“Me”; Cooper, 1992). James’ theories, philosophies, and research became a part of foundation for the progress of modern psychology. As modern psychology continued to develop, social psychologists, such as George Mead (1934), Sullivan (1953), and Allport (1955, 1961), emphasized the understanding of self through social interaction. Mead (1934), in particular, suggested that there are as many selves as the number of roles a person play in social interaction (Epstein, 1973). That is, although the self has access to experience and knowledge, including the knowledge of the self, the experience and knowledge are accumulated through social interaction. As such, psychological research on self has increasingly emphasized the role of social interaction. In the next part, I will be discussing some notable psychological theories that emphasizes the role of social interaction.

Social Learning Theory (Bandura)

Based on the idea that people learn from social interactions, Albert Bandura (1977) introduced *Social Learning Theory* (SLT) which emphasizes learning as continuous series of

observations and modeling of the behaviors, attitudes, and emotional reactions of others. Social learning theory explains human behavior in terms of continuous reciprocal interaction between cognitive, behavioral, and environmental influence. The concepts in SLT also provides important connections to the concepts of self.

The first concept of SLT is observational learning. In 1961, Bandura and colleagues began conducting experiments on aggression, using a Bobo doll. In the experiment, results showed that children who observed aggressive behavior towards the Bobo doll exhibited aggressive behavior on the Bobo doll significantly more than the children in the non-aggressive or the control group. The result of the Bobo doll experiment indicate that people can learn behavior by observing others without extrinsic reward or reinforcement, which had been insisted as the dominating reason for learning (Newman & Newman, 2010). To provide an alternative explanation to observational learning, intrinsic reinforcement was introduced as the second concept of SLT. Intrinsic reinforcement is defined as the inherent enjoyment or reward (Singh et al., 2010) and includes rewards such as satisfaction, a sense of accomplishment, and a sense of belonging. The sense of belonging as a reward will be described further in *Social Identity Theory* later. The third concept in SLT is that although a person can model behaviors and learn, it does not always lead to a change in behavior. Using the Bobo doll experiment, the SLT explains that while children are able to model aggressive behavior through observation, this does not permanently change the children to always exhibit aggressive behavior toward the Bobo doll (Newman & Newman, 2015). In actuality, children can choose to exhibit aggressive behavior in situations/context they think is appropriate (Newman & Newman, 2015). The way people can develop the connection between the appropriate behavior and social context is described below through the *Sociocultural Theory* by Lev Vygotsky.

Sociocultural Theory (Vygotsky)

The work of Lev Vygotsky began in attempts to explain psychological, especially cognitive development (Wertsch, 1991). Vygotsky's sociocultural theory (1978) explains individual's psychological development largely through two facets: 1) the relationship between individual's mental functioning and social (e.g., culture, institutional values, history, etc.) interaction, and 2) the internalization of the social interaction experience into learning (Scott & Palinscar, 2013). Vygotsky defined his approach as “instrumental,” “cultural” and “historical” (Gajdamaschko, 2015). The *instrumental* aspect of Vygotsky's framework connects to the first of the aforementioned facets: incorporating new elements, using internal and external tools, in their existing structure which ultimately transforms the whole structure of mental functioning (Gajdamaschko, 2015). The analysis of tools, which individuals actively use as instruments to modify and master their own behaviors, became a necessary part of Vygotsky's approach.

The term *cultural* emphasized that aspect of Vygotsky's theory that views cultural development as a unique direction in the development of the child, reflecting socially constructed ways in which society aids the individual in organizing the necessary tasks for development as well as providing physical and mental tools to complete the tasks (Gajdamaschko, 2015). The *historical* aspect of Vygotsky's theory is closely connected to the *cultural* aspect. The set of tools provided by a given culture were invented and developed during the long course of human history. Thus, tools such as language, arithmetic systems, maps, and signs are developed through the accumulation of the experiences using the tools and eventually become special instruments for individual's development. Because the invention and development of cultural tools continues, *historical* also means not only something from the past, but also contemporary aspects of life that are in process of change,

linking the past and the future (Gajdamaschko, 2015). In Vygotsky's framework (1978), a child expands his/her mental functioning based on the interactions he/she engages with environment. In this case, environment of a child consists of tutors, such as parents, siblings, teachers, peers, and more. Tutor(s) would interact with the child through verbal instructions and/or modeling behavior (Scott & Palinscar, 2013). A child would then absorb the interactional experience internally and acquire knowledge and experience about the environment through the tutors (Scott & Palinscar, 2013). Furthermore, Vygotsky was also cognizant of the influence of the environment on a child, as well as the influence of the child on the environment (Tudge & Scrimsher, 2003). That is, Vygotsky was aware that while the proportion of learning may be uneven between the child and the tutors, the influence is bi-directional, fitting the definition of *interaction* (Scott & Palinscar, 2013). Finally, Vygotsky also introduced ideas that the larger culture and history also shapes the social experience of the tutors, which then would be transferred to the child and his/her understanding of the world (Tudge & Scrimsher, 2003). The frameworks of Vygotsky on social interaction shows similarities with Bronfenbrenner's *Bioecological Model* (1995), which will also be discussed later.

Social Identity Theory (Tajfel et al., 1970)

Previous theories on the development of self (Bandura, 1967; Vygotsky, 1978) emphasized the role of environment and the interaction between the environment and the self. In particular, the *Sociocultural Theory* proposed that the interaction between the environment and the self becomes internalized (Vygotsky, 1978). The next question is, "How does an individual interact with the environment?" One potential answer to the question comes from the *Social Identity Theory* (Tajfel & Turner., 1986). Social identity is a person's sense of who they are based on their group membership (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). This is also in connection

with Mead's interpretation of the self in relation to social roles (1934), as well as Bandura's *Social Learning Theory* (1967). *Social Identity Theory*, developed by Henri Tajfel and his colleagues (1979), proposed that people think of themselves as members of a group sharing similar identity, rather than as individuals (Ellemers & Haslam, 2012).

The social identity theory introduces three principles to explain social identity: psychological distinction of social and personal identity, strategies people use to develop more positive social identity, and the characteristics of the social culture (Ellemers & Haslam, 2012; Tajfel et al., 1979). First, the psychological processes used to distinguish social and personal identity are: social categorization, social comparison, and social identification. Social categorization is defined as the process that organizes individuals into different groups based on the shared group-defining characteristics (Ellemers & Haslam, 2012). These group-defining characteristics distinguishes one group from other groups (Tajfel, 1978a). It is because of the grouping of individuals that allows to perceive individuals in the same group as a whole, and also provides clear distinction among the different social identities (Tajfel, 1978a). As a result, when an individual perceives themselves to be a member of a particular group, they come to be seen through the shared identity, while their individual uniqueness is less pronounced (Ellemers & Haslam, 2012). Social comparison, much like interpersonal comparisons, involves comparison between groups, but based on which group characteristic is being valued. However, there are no objective standards to measure the values of each group, which creates subjective, arbitrary comparisons (Tajfel, 1978b). Finally, social identification is defined as the inevitable group membership during the social categorization and comparison process (Tajfel, 1978a). An example often used is the comparison between men and women (Ellemers & Haslam, 2012). When categorizing and comparing men and women, it is inevitable that the individual must also be categorized into

either men or women. This is crucial in understanding individual's interaction with the environment: An individual must be categorized into groups based on their own characteristics. As an individual is categorized into a group sharing similar characteristics, the individual interacts with the environment, both the group that he/she belongs and the other groups, through categorization and comparison.

Once an individual categorizes self into specific social group(s), the individual is able to evaluate their relative standing in society based on their group membership (Tajfel, 1978c). Because people are motivated to be evaluated more positively, people will work to improve their relative value in society. Part of this would include working to improve the relative value of the shared characteristics of the group in society (Tajfel, 1978c). Social identity theory suggests both individual and group strategies to elevate the value of their social identity (Ellesmer & Haslam, 2012), including individual mobility, social creativity, and social competition. Individual mobility, as the name projects, is a strategy that can be applied at the individual level; an escape strategy that can be employed by an individual. When the relative standing of a particular social identity is lower in society, an individual may choose to leave the group and seek to be included in other social groups with higher social standing (Tajfel, 1975). In short, individual mobility ironically emphasizes the individual characteristics that differs from the social identity and allows the individual to search for a different social identity (Ellesmer & Haslam, 2012). Social creativity is a strategy at a group level that attempts to elevate the relative social standing of the group as a whole by employing strategies that would emphasize the positive ingroup characteristics (Ellesmer & Haslam, 2012). An example of social creativity would be plus-size models. While larger physical size in modeling was initially less desired, the perceptions of larger physical size changed as plus-size model gained acceptance by challenging the existing beauty standards

(Awadallah, accessed March 1st, 2021). Finally, social competition is a more conflictual method to create change in the relative standing of the social identity (Tajfel, 1975). A prime example of social competition is the BLM movement. The social identity of the BLM movement and protests is the ‘people in the U.S. who believe Black-identified individuals are being brutally treated and systemically oppressed by the U.S. police and the U.S. government’. Understanding the BLM protest through the lens of social competition, in order to elevate the relative social status of Black-identified individuals, members of the BLM movement organized protests throughout the United States after the death of George Floyd.

The last part of social identity theory names characteristics that enables individuals to employ the aforementioned strategies: permeability, stability, and legitimacy (Ellesmer & Haslam, 2012). According to Tajfel (1975), these characteristics are defined as subjective belief structure, which allows the individual to evaluate the opportunities and motives to employ the identity management strategies. Permeability is defined as the subjective belief that an individual is able to act as an individual and not a member of a group in appropriate situations (Ellesmer & Haslam, 2012). If the level of permeability is high, it would provide opportunities for the individual to employ individual mobility. Stability is the subjective belief that allows the individual to evaluate the level of fluidity and stability of between group characteristics and opportunities for social change. Finally, legitimacy is defined as the level of motivation for change (Ellesmer & Haslam, 2012).

The social identity theory provides an explanation on how an individual interacts with the environment, and how the environment exerts influence on the individual. The environment influences the individual through its connection to the individual identities, which are inevitably connected to various characteristics of the environmental variables. When observing the relationship between environmental variables and individual, there are a

plethora of environmental variables that an individual can identify with. To simplify the organization of environmental variables surrounding an individual, Bronfenbrenner's theories, *Ecological Systems Theory* and *Bioecological Model* (1977, 1979, 1994) are introduced.

Bioecological Model (Bronfenbrenner)

One structured framework to explain the relationship between the individual and the environment in an organized fashion has been suggested by Urie Bronfenbrenner through the *Bioecological Model* (1994). Bronfenbrenner's *Bioecological Model* (1994) originally began from his *Ecological Systems Theory* (1979), stemming from developmental perspective. Bronfenbrenner (1977) suggested that an individual's environment could be organized into a series of nested structures, each interacting with the other. In the *Ecological Systems Theory*, Bronfenbrenner (1977) organized the surrounding environment of an individual into four ecosystems, defined by the proximity of the environment to the individual. These four systems were named *microsystem*, *mesosystem*, *exosystem*, and *macrosystem*. Some important emphases in the *Ecological System Theory* are the interrelatedness of the environment, the influence of the interrelated systems on the influence of one system on the individual, and structured organization of the environmental variables by the variables' relative distance to the individual. That is, the influence of the outermost ecosystem on the individual is transferred through the interaction with other ecosystems. The influence can also be transferred in the opposite direction, from the individual characteristic to the outermost ecosystem.

Microsystem is the closest environment to the individual (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). Microsystem interacts most closely with individual and provides most visible influence on individual due to the proximity. Furthermore, due to the interrelatedness of the individual and

the environment, microsystem is also influenced by individual characteristics the most (Bronfenbrenner, 1974, 1979). Some prominent examples of factors belonging in microsystem include parents, family, peers, and teachers. In counseling psychology research, previous research on well-being or happiness frequently included microsystem variables such as parent-child relationship.

Starting from mesosystem, the interaction between the individual and the environmental variables begins to be less direct. *Mesosystem* is defined as the interaction between different microsystems (Bronfenbrenner, 1974, 1979), which in turn influences the individual. An example of using mesosystem variables in research would be studying the relationship between child's academic achievement and parenting style (Kim et al., 2012). *Exosystem* is defined as various social structures that are not directly connected to the individual, but provides influence through their relationship with interconnected microsystems, which are connected directly to the individual (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). An example of exosystem variable used in research would be studying the relationship between child's psychological well-being and the parents' host-nation language proficiency (Gorodzeisky et al., 2014). Finally, *macrosystem* includes variables that encompasses larger cultures and societies. As an individual is placed within a macrosystem, he/she is immersed into a culture where the other ecosystems are also immersed in and subsequently influencing the individual. Examples of macrosystem variables used in research include quality of society (Abbott et al., 2016), societal development (Li & Bond, 2010), and pattern of public policies (Alvarez-Diaz et al., 2010).

As the *Ecological Systems Theory* was originally created in the 1970s, some revisions were made the theory, which was eventually renamed as the *Bioecological Model*. Bronfenbrenner (1994, 1995) began to focus on the impact of environment on individual's

accumulated development over time. That is, Bronfenbrenner (1994) began to emphasize the role of individual's accumulated experience of interaction with ecosystems. As such, an additional ecosystem was established: *chronosystem*. *Chronosystem* is defined as the changes in the environment over the course of individual's development (Bronfenbrenner, 1994). These changes in the environment could be directly connected to the individual, such as moving to a new location, or indirectly through the other ecosystems, such as historical events. Furthermore, as the world evolved through the advancement of technology, more variables were included in various ecosystems. For example, the development of the Internet and social media has enabled individuals to create communities beyond the traditional definition limited by physical proximity (Guy-Evans, 2020, November 9).

The previous theories and research on the interaction between individual and environment stemmed in understanding the human development. Now, I focus on how these theories and research from the developmental perspective can be transferred over to the field of counseling psychology.

Counseling Psychology

Counseling psychology is a field of study focusing on how people function in relation to each other (American Psychological Association, 2008). In counseling psychology, researchers address various mental health concerns people may experience at various life stages and focus on stress and issues which people may struggle as a part of families, groups, and organizations (Brown & Lent, 2008). The goal of counseling psychology research is to help people address the physical, emotional, and mental health issues and improve their sense of well-being, alleviate feelings of distress, and resolve crises by applying the research results into psychotherapy practice (APA, 2008). To achieve the said goals, counseling psychology researchers focus on understanding the characteristics of

people (as a part within couples, families, groups, or organizations), and environmental/situational influences (how cultural, gender and lifestyle issues shape people's experiences and concerns) across various stages of life (APA, 2008). The results of counseling psychology are then applied to integrate issues of diversity and social justice in clinical interventions (APA, 2008).

In counseling psychology, the concept of self, explained earlier in this chapter, also plays a critical role. Rogers (1951), one of the pioneers in psychotherapy, defined self as "an organized, fluid, but consistent conceptual pattern of perceptions of characteristics and relationships of the 'I' or the 'me,' together with values attached to these concepts." Rogers (1959) added that the individual has an internal need to maintain and enhance the self, which is also defined as *self-actualization*. In Rogers' understanding, individual experiences threats to his/her mental health when there is a threat to the organization of the self, followed by catastrophic disorganization when the threat cannot be defended against (Epstein, 1973). Rogers (1959) added that for a person to self-actualize, the person needs an environment that provides them with qualities that could foster the individual's self-actualization. In clinical setting, these qualities include genuineness (openness and self-disclosure), acceptance (being seen with unconditional positive regard), and empathy (being listened to and understood; Rogers, 1951, 1959).

In Rogers' definition of the self, however, lies the challenges in counseling psychology research to expand: the capability of exercising control (Epstein, 1973). In order to achieve self-actualization, a change is a necessary process to occur, in which the change is assisted by the environment (Rogers, 1959). That is, change will only occur to the extent the individual feels capable of controlling the change process and this is often defined by the extent that the environment could provide support (Epstein, 1973). With certain

environmental variables, it is difficult to experience a sense of support for the individual to strive for change. Furthermore, since the application of counseling psychology research is intended to occur within psychotherapy setting, it is difficult to maintain the change once the client is removed from the psychotherapy setting. This limitation in creating change for the individual to reach self-actualization began to be resolved as the importance on advocacy emerged within the field of counseling psychology. Furthermore, with the emphasis on advocacy, clinicians began to act as agents to create changes in client's environment outside of psychotherapy setting, and also emphasized psychoeducation on self-advocacy, and community collaboration (Goodman et al., 2004; Ibrahim & Heuer, 2016).

As mentioned above, a particular challenge in creating a change in client's environment is the level of control the individual possesses to the environment. This level of control becomes increasingly more difficult to obtain as the environment becomes larger; into communities, social groups, governments, and other systemic structures. Ultimately, the entity that includes the environment at the largest level is country. Here, I will explain more on how country is a variable that integrates the larger environmental variables.

Construct of Country: Previous Research

As mentioned in Introduction, *country* is defined as a community of people sharing identity, history, and cultures, inhabiting a particular geographical region or territory (Oxford Languages). The reason that country is used over *nation* or *society* is due to the make-up of the people in a country. In a country, there are numerous social groups, such as international students, expatriates, and refugees, who may not identify with the shared characteristics of the mainstream society, or not connected to the systemic structures, such as culture and political structures, of the nation. For example, a refugee would not necessarily have any connections to the mainstream society, but simply only live in the country to be away from

the turmoil in their home country (USA for United Nations High Commissioners for Refugees, 2001-2021). Furthermore, as a refugee, they do not have eligibility to participate in some of the activities and cultures, such as voting and civic duties, within a country. Therefore, this study is using *country* over other terms.

From everyday conversations to media coverage, it is possible to experience the impact on individual's well-being by the country they live in. For example, the results of the Presidential Election 2016 in the United States impacted the mental health of significant population. Media coverage reported college student population having psychological distress (Ellis, 2018), minorities experiencing high anxiety, and many Americans looking into immigration to Canada (Blitzer, 2017). In phenomenological sense, the impact of country on individual well-being clearly makes sense. However, how is it being translated into psychological research, more importantly, counseling psychology research?

Some researchers have already attempted to conduct research on the relationship between country, or environmental variables related to country, and individual well-being (Abbott et al., 2016; Alvarez-Diaz et al., 2010; Bhullar et al., 2012; Bjornskov et al., 2008; Cavallo et al., 2015; Choma et al., 2009; Chu et al., 2018; Eksi & Kaya, 2017; Heukamp & Arino, 2011; Kogan et al., 2017; Koots-Ausmees & Realo, 2015; Li & Bond, 2010; Morrison et al., 2011; Moyano-Diaz & Palomo-Velez, 2018; Nonnenmacher & Friedrichs, 2013; Obydenkova & Salahodjaev, 2017; Schalembier, 2016). While the above research results certainly show significant relationship between the selected environmental variables and the individual's well-being, and the existence of country satisfaction, some limitations still exist, which is largely associated with the methodological assessment of country satisfaction.

The following are research that has suggested how country and country satisfaction is studied in psychological research, as well as potential conceptual structures of country.

Research Involving Country Satisfaction

As previously stated, the well-being research evolved from understanding individual characteristics into larger environmental variables. This is supported by researchers finding positive influence of larger group identity and subjective perception of satisfaction with their country (Morrison et al., 2011). However, the authors agreed that individual's satisfaction with their country of residence have received little attention. As such, Morrison, and colleagues (2011) investigated the influence of national satisfaction on individual satisfaction, while also accounting for regional, cultural, and economic differences. To theoretically support the rationale in the relationship between national satisfaction and life satisfaction, the authors followed the principles suggested in the social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). Furthermore, authors also added that for people who often move (e.g., international students, ex-patriates, etc.) would likely to have lower national satisfaction than the individuals who are staying (Oishi et al., 2007).

The authors performed a cross-country analysis, using the data of 132,516 individuals from 128 countries that participated in a World Poll conducted by Gallup Organization (Morrison et al., 2011). To measure life satisfaction and national satisfaction, the authors used Cantril's Self-Anchoring Striving Scale (1965), and only switched the prompt to rate their life and their country. The authors also measured various environmental variables, such as household income, GDP per capita, region, and household conveniences. The results supported that after accounting for the national satisfaction significantly influenced life satisfaction.

Other research focused on the ability on the individual to reflect on their past and present and predict their future life (Moyano-Diaz & Palomo-Velez, 2018). That is, if an individual can compare their past life and the present life using various environmental

variables, such as income, social security, job security, ability to move, etc., the individual is able to make predictions about their future. The authors proposed that when an individual is able to predict their future well-being, this, in turn, influences country satisfaction, and ultimately influencing life satisfaction. In this research, country satisfaction was defined as the cognitive evaluation of the country involving weighing the impact of different factors of the country to the individual (Moyano-Diaz & Palomo-Velez, 2018). The authors measured country satisfaction with one question from the National Household Spending Survey of Mexico (ENGASTO; INEGI, 2012): “Could you tell me on a scale of 0-10 how satisfied you feel with the country in which you live?” The authors performed a series of correlational analyses which showed positive associations between current and past perceptions of the country and its expected development and well-being. Furthermore, expectations of future personal well-being showed indirect effects for both the perception of improvement or deterioration and country satisfaction. Finally, results also showed a significant relationship between country satisfaction and life satisfaction.

The result by Moyano-Diaz and Palomo-Velez (2018) showed that individual’s perception of life condition in different time periods is a significant predictor in life satisfaction. That is, it can be suggested that when there is a nation-wide event that impacts people in the country for the specific time, such as the COVID-19 pandemic, their perception of their life condition is likely to change, and subsequently influence the life satisfaction. In terms of limitations of this study, country satisfaction was assessed with only one item, and only asking their overall satisfaction with country. Furthermore, because the ENGASTO measured individual’s economical patterns, such as spending and consumption, the economic aspect of an individual’s life conditions have been utilized in predicting their future well-being.

Cross-Country Research with Country-Level Variables

In the research by Heukamp and Arino (2011), the authors suggested the need to include country-level variables into the well-being research as the research on well-being is disproportionately focused on individual characteristics. The authors also reported a disconnect between analysis on individual level and cross-country level. As an example, the authors described a disconnect when comparing Latin Americans and Scandinavians. While Latin American individuals seem happier and cheerful and Scandinavian individuals are often stereotyped as solemn and distant, the cross-country comparison of life satisfaction scores show that countries in the Scandinavian region show higher life satisfaction than countries in Latin America. As such, the authors became interested in the factors within the countries that impact life satisfaction that could potentially impact well-being stronger than the individual characteristics.

To examine the effect of country-level variables specifically to explain cross-country difference, the authors attempted to analyze the World Values Survey data of 64 countries that were collected in four waves beginning from 1981 to 2004. The authors performed a 2-step regression analysis: 1) analysis of individual characteristics and 2) analysis of national variables after accounting for individual characteristics (Heukamp & Arino, 2011). For individual characteristics, authors included health, employment status, marital status, education level, age, gender, religious/spirituality, memberships in other organizations, honest tax payment, general level of trust towards other people, and relative income position. In nation-level analysis, the variables included were: real GDP growth per capita, change in growth of the real GDP per capita, national income per capita, inflation, population, infant mortality, life expectancy, natality rate, quality of government, corruption, suicide rate, abortion rate, the proportion of GDP spent on health, and dominant religion. Results of the

regression analysis showed that life expectancy, natality rate, Muslim country, corruption, and latitude of country have shown significant influence on life satisfaction, after accounting for individual differences (Heukamp & Arino, 2011).

In another research using World Values Survey, Bjornskov and colleagues (2008) are researchers in economics who were interested in the economics of happiness. In their literature review, they found that one path of research focused on the influence of individual-level factors, such as higher relative income, religiosity, marital status, or employment status on individual's well-being, which showed consistent results across different countries. On the other hand, other path of research focused on cross-country differences by adding a large aggregate number of individual-level variables, or by observing the cross-country differences of average happiness on factors that belong in macrosystem. Besides national income (Frey & Stutzer, 2000), the results from these group of research have shown inconsistent results on the factors that would belong in macrosystem, such as inflation rates, democracy, and gender equality, that influence well-being. Another limitation in previous literature is that while the influence of country-level variables may differ by subpopulations and socio-demographic characteristics, previous research has focused on the analysis of entire population. To close the gap between the inconsistent results on the influence of variables that would belong in macrosystem on life satisfaction, Bjornskov and colleagues (2008) investigated the influence of country-level variables on well-being by using World Survey Values data of 70 countries from 1997-2000. After examining the cross-country factors that influences life satisfaction, the authors arbitrarily divided the cross-country factors into four groups based on shared characteristics and examined 27 hypotheses based on the cross-country factors.

Authors divided the cross-country factors in the World Survey Values into the following four groups: political factors, economic factors, institutional factors, and human

development/cultural factors. Authors reported that, regardless of the country, research has shown clear connections between political factors and life satisfaction (Bjornskov et al., 2008). Authors also suggested that political factors influence life satisfaction by influencing: the way resources are being allocated, the responsiveness of politicians to their constituents, the favorable/unfavorable attitude toward certain societal groups, the level of compromise between conflicts interests from different societal groups, and people's economic expectations from the future (Bjornskov et a., 2008). Furthermore, some specific political factors, such as the existence of democracy in the country, political ideology of the government, level of government fractionalization (the size and dividedness of the government departments), bicameralism (separation of legislature into multiple groups), monarchy vs. republic, impact of communism, has been suggested as potential political factors on life satisfaction.

Economic factors certainly influence life satisfaction. In fact, it was mentioned that national income has been the single factor that provided consistent results on influencing life satisfaction (Frey & Stutzer, 2000). Authors suggested largely three groups of economic factors that have been suggested by previous research: level and variety of private and public goods consumption, goods, relative income standing, and expectations on future income flow (Bjornskov et al., 2008). Per each group of economic factors, authors suggested factors that influence consumption and consumption possibilities (GDP, globalization, and government consumption), economic inequalities (degree of income inequality, and redistribution of wealth), and economic certainty based on stable growth (Bjornskov et al., 2008).

Institutions, such as government, religious institutions, are to provide settings for the operation of markets, facilities, administrations, and systemic structures (Bjornskov et al., 2008; Helliwell, 2006; Ovaska & Takashima, 2006). Authors suggested that regardless of the

formality of the institutions, level of governance predicts significant impact on life satisfaction. Furthermore, authors also followed the research by Putnam (1993) and suggested that social capitals, such as norms, honesty, and values, and included the institutions that projects social capitals. As a result, authors included ethnic diversity and religion as institutional factors that influence life satisfaction. In this framework, institutions that are able to hold ethnic diversity and religious heterogeneity is predicted to influence life satisfaction (Bjornskov et al., 2008). Finally, authors suggested human development and culture as another group of environmental factors. Human development is defined as a group of factors that are associated with quality of life and includes health care, access to education, gender discrimination, and geographical location (Bjornskov et al., 2008).

Another research by Nonnemacher and Friedrichs (2013) stemmed from a sociological and political science approach to provide support on the macro-micro model (Coleman, 1990). The macro-micro model (Coleman, 1990) suggests that in order to observe a causal relationship between larger macro-level variables (e.g. relationship between a social condition and change in aggregate characteristic), how a macro-level variable influences micro-level variables of the individuals (e.g. attitudes) through different social contexts, which creates a collective act from the individuals, which then creates a change in aggregate characteristic (Coleman, 1994; Nonnenmacher & Friedrichs, 2013). Using the BLM movement as an example, yet again, the macro-micro model suggests that in order to observe the causal relationship between the police brutality against Black-identified individuals and change in the unfair treatment of the Black-identified individuals, observation of how the death of George Floyd influenced people living in the U.S., which created a collective act from the people identifying with the BLM movement, and how the protests created aggregate change in treatment of Black-identified individuals needs to be observed. In comparison to

the bioecological model, the macro-micro model and bioecological model shares some similarity that variables from community, society, and country level influences the individual through social interactions. In macro-micro model, however, the terms do not align with the terms in the bioecological model. In macro-micro model, micro-variables refer to smaller organized groups, including individual, family, school, etc. Macro-variables refer to variables related to larger communities and systemic structures, such as country, government, economy, etc. Translating the macro-variables and micro-variables into bioecological model, micro-variables include the individual and variables belonging in microsystem, whereas macro-variables would include environmental variables belonging in exosystem and macrosystem.

Nonnenmacher and Friedrichs (2013) particularly observed research that focused on cross-countries differences of macro-micro relationships. The authors observed disconnections between the proposed theories and the data analysis. That is, while research examining macro-micro variable relationships provide sound theoretical base for country differences, the data analysis process fails to specify which social context or contextual hypotheses, usually proposed in the theory section of an article, influences the cross-country difference and instead elaborate on macro–micro explanations in the discussion section, failing to integrate the social context in empirical examinations. To test the assumptions, the authors analyzed 22 research studies in journals cited in the Social Science Citation Index between 2007 and 2010, which compare countries with respect to life satisfaction. In examining the 22 research studies, the authors listed the macro-variables used in the studies and organized them based on common characteristics (Nonnenmacher & Friedrichs, 2013). The authors divided the macro-variables into: human & built capital (e.g. unemployment rate, infrastructure, public services, education system, affluence, etc.), social capital (e.g. social

cohesion, international openness, civic participation, etc.), political capital (e.g. forms of government, political stability, corruption, government regulation, etc.), natural capital (e.g. natural resources, urbanization level, etc.), and culture (e.g. values, norms, autonomy, etc.).

Analysis of Previous Research

In the research that directly measured country satisfaction (Morrison et al., Moyano-Diaz & Palomo-Velez, 2018), the limitations are the validity and reliability issue, and the environmental variables focusing only on specific aspect of country, largely economic variables. In the other branch of research, the relationship between country satisfaction and individual well-being was observed through examining numbers of environmental variables and indirectly measure the influence of country satisfaction on individual well-being. The limitation of this branch is also connected with statistical analysis. These research would either insufficiently explain the impact of country satisfaction on individual's well-being due to the limited numbers of environmental variables (Gorodzeisky et al., 2014; Liu et al., 2019; Obydenkova & Salahodjaev, 2017), or the data analysis would accumulate measurement error. Furthermore, another limitation in the research using large number of variables observed is the insufficient standards in categorizing environmental variables. Therefore, this study intends to develop a single scale that integrates environmental variables from diverse domains within a country and measure individual's level of satisfaction toward country. As such, I will be discussing how a research scale is developed.

Development and Validation of Research Scale

As this study suggests a conceptual construct of *country* which encompasses environmental variables nested within various ecological systems, a development of a research scale measuring individual's level of country satisfaction is required. With scale development, Hinkin and colleagues (1997) developed guidelines for scale development and

analysis: item generation, content adequacy assessment, questionnaire administration, factor analysis, internal consistency assessment, construct validity, and replication. Before beginning item generation, other studies have suggested defining the purpose of the test and target population and review of previous literature on the construct and examine potential underlying factors (Benson & Clark, 1982; McCoach et al., 2013; Reckase, 1996).

Initial Item Generation

For item generation, participants are often recruited for an individual interview or focus group. Once the contents from interviews or focus groups are analyzed, a set of items are generated based on the themes that emerged from the contents of the interviews or focus groups. In terms of number of items, although there are no specific rules, previous research has suggested at least four to six items per factor to obtain adequate internal consistency (Harvey et al., 1985; Hinkin & Schriesheim, 1989). Considering possible elimination of items for the final version of the scale, it is suggested to have at least twice as many items as intended number of items per factor (Hinkin et al., 1997).

Content Adequacy Assessment and Response Format

Then, the content adequacy assessment will be performed. The purpose of content adequacy assessment is to screen conceptually inconsistent items before final questionnaire development to ensure the scale's construct validity (Hinkin et al., 1997). After items are developed, the content adequacy assessment is performed by experts to sort the items into common characteristics. Then common characteristics suggested by the experts are compared with potential theoretical factors provided in previous research. Based on the similarity and differences of the factors, items are revised (Benson & Clark, 1982). Next step is to determine how to rate the items on the scale (Gable & Wolf, 1993). While there is no consensus on the rating scale points, especially in the Likert format, several researchers,

through empirical evaluation of response scales, have provided findings that five- to seven-point response seems most fit for reliability and validity issues (Dillman et al., 2014; Gable & Wolf, 1993). After there is an agreement on the categorization of the items, and the rating score is determined, the questionnaire is administered to the target population to examine the internal structure of a scale.

Factor Analysis

Next, factor analysis is conducted to examine the internal structure of a scale. Once the minimum required number of data from a sample that is as representative as possible of the target population is collected, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) can be conducted. Since the CSS is in the newly developed phase and there is no *a priori* knowledge or empirical evidence of the underlying structure, EFA is performed first. EFA is conducted primarily to explore the dimensionality of an instrument scale by finding the smaller number of interpretable factors needed to explain the correlations among a given set of items (Henson & Roberts, 2006). That is, the results of EFA provide information on the number of factors as well as which factor each item is hypothesized to measure. Therefore, in the initial phase of scale development, the results of EFA provide an initial exploration of the relationships between the judgmentally developed factor/content categories (i.e., theoretical predictions) and the empirically derived factors (McCoach et al., 2013, p. 112). Based on the results of the EFA, the scale is modified by removing or revising some items, as needed. The standard criteria for determining item elimination are that items clearly loading on a single factor should be retained. In looking at factor loadings, the common rule is to retain items with .40 or higher (Ford et al., 1986). In case of cross-loadings, it is suggested to eliminate items with cross-loading differences less than 0.2 (Henseler et al., 2015).

After the revision of the scale is done, the revised scale is administered to a separate

sample from a target population for a more rigorous test of the factor structure using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). CFA is conducted using an independent sample of data to test the goodness of fit of the factor model (i.e., the factor structure), specifying the number of factors and the relationship of items to factors, determined in the EFA procedure. CFA provides information about how well a hypothesized factor model fits data of a new sample from a target population (McCoach et al., 2013). CFA can also perform the evaluation of competing or alternative models by comparing the fit between the proposed model and alternate models. In determining the goodness of fit, a group of statistics are used: chi-square, degree of freedom, Tucker Lewis Index (TLI), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), and Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR). Chi-square is measured to not only observe the fit of the model, but also to compare the fit between the proposed model and alternate, nested models (Hinkin et al., 1997). A non-significant chi-square value indicates that the difference between the implied variance-covariance matrix of the proposed model and the observed variance-covariance matrix can be attributed to sampling error. TLI and CFI are required to assess the relative fit of the model. That is, TLI and CFI are measured with 0 as the worst possible model and 1 as the best possible model. A value higher than .90 to .95 in TLI and CFI is considered as a good fit. Also, RMSEA and SRMR compare the fit of the model from the absolute fit. RMSEA lower than .05 to .08 is considered to indicate a good fit. With SRMR, which is numerically indicated as 0, a smaller value close to 0 would indicate a good fit (Kenny, 2015). Taken together, the current study would aim to collectively observe the fit indices based on the criteria: TLI and CFI with value higher than .90, RMSEA with value lower than .08, and SRMR less than .08 (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Kenny, 2015).

Reliability

Next step would be reliability assessment. Reliability is defined as the consistency of test scores in repeated applications to a particular group (AERA, APA, NCME, 2014). A measure has high reliability when the results of the measure are consistent with same group. Because it is often difficult to maintain same conditions for the group to answer the measure (e.g., participant not having a good night's sleep the 2nd time they answer the measure than the 1st time), there are errors to be observed in addition to the participant's true score (Revelle & Zinbarg, 2009). Therefore, reliability can be also defined as the amount that the observed scores are equal to the true scores despite the potential errors (DeVon et al., 2007; Drost, 2011). While there are multiple ways to measure reliability of the measure (e.g., test-retest reliability, inter-rater reliability, internal consistency reliability), internal consistency has been used frequently to observe the measure's reliability. The advantage of internal consistency is that it does not require additional data and it is easy to compute (AERA, APA, NCME, 2014; McCoach et al., 2013). A high internal consistency indicates that the scale items are homogeneous and capture sampling domain (Churchill, 1979). There are multiple ways to measure internal consistency, including Cronbach's alpha, coefficient omega, and the greatest lower bound reliability (Deng & Chan, 2017; Drost, 2011; Revelle & Zinbarg, 2009). Although Cronbach's alpha is the most commonly used indicator of internal consistency, several research has pointed out the limitations of Cronbach's alpha (Cho & Kim, 2015; Dunn et al., 2014; Green et al., 1977; Peters, 2014; Schmitt, 1996). As the decision to measure which internal consistency coefficient is dependent on the sample characteristics, understanding the sample characteristics is essential in scale development procedure.

Validity

Final paramount step is to establish validity evidence. Validity is defined as the

extent the test scores can be explained by theoretical support and empirical evidence for proposed uses of tests (AERA, APA, NCME, 2014, p.11). Validity tests are particularly important in scale development as it is the culmination of scale development, beginning from examining the definition of the construct to checking the scale's generalizability (Boateng et al., 2018). One important point in validity tests is that although the validity tests are a part of scale development procedure, it is the test scores that are being validated for its uses, not the scale itself (AERA, APA, NCME, 2014, p.11). One of the most common ways to examine validity of an interpretation of a test score is to compare the relationship with other constructs, including convergent, discriminant, and known-groups validity evidence. Furthermore, another method to examine the validity is to observe the extent the test scores predict another criterion through test-criterion relations, known as criterion-related validity including concurrent and predictive validity evidence (AERA, APA, NCME, 2014, p.17).

Validity Check with Related Constructs

This study is intending to examine construct, known groups, and criterion validity of the CSS. I will now review specific variables used in this study for validating the CSS.

Social Well-Being

To measure the construct validity of the CSS, *social well-being*, the evaluation of one's circumstance and functioning in society (Keyes, 1998), will be used. Keyes (1998) also followed the observations of William James (1890) and George Mead (1934) and considered self as having a private side as well as public side. Despite the self including both public and private side, Keyes (1998) reported the uneven depth of research on well-being. That is, research on well-being primarily focused on the private aspect of the self, and significantly less in the individual's well-being in contact with the social side. As such, the need to emphasize and measure the social version of well-being surfaced (Keyes, 1998).

Social well-being is composed of five dimensions: social integration, social acceptance, social contribution, social actualization, and social coherence (Keyes, 1998). In order, social integration is defined as the quality of individual's relationship to society. An example item measuring social integration would be "I feel close to other people in my community." Social acceptance is defined as the level of trust an individual exhibits towards other members of society. An example item measuring social acceptance would be "I believe that people are kind." Social contribution is defined as the evaluation of self-value in relation to society. An example item measuring social contribution would be "I have something valuable to give to the world." Social actualization is defined as the evaluation of individual's outlook on the society. An example item measuring social actualization would be "Society isn't improving for people like me." Finally, social coherence is defined as the level of care and understanding of the society's performance. An example item measuring social coherence would be "I cannot make sense of what's going on in the world." (Keyes, 1998).

The reason for the selecting social well-being to test the construct validity of CSS is the conceptual similarity and difference. In terms of definition, both country and society share the interaction between individuals and communities, as individuals' identities reflect memberships to various communities in the society. However, country is conceptually defined differently from society. Country is defined to include the concept of society, while also having components that are independent from the definition of society. The most notable difference is that country includes structural/political component in addition to environmental variables related to society, while society focuses strictly on the interactional aspect (Merriem-Webster, n.d.). As such, the cross-examination of CSS and social well-being scale for validity test is conceptually valid.

In this study, only select dimensions of social well-being (social integration & social

actualization) were included for the validity test of the CSS. One reason is the similarity of the items in face value. That is, because the items in social integration and social actualization reflect the impact of society on individual (e.g., “Society isn’t improving for people like me.”) and CSS measures how various environmental variables within a country makes the individual feel, the items seem to measure similar domains when the conceptual distinction between country and society are not stated. Therefore, this study is using items measuring social integration and social actualization.

Patriotism

To measure the construct validity of CSS, patriotism will be used. When discussing how one feels about the country, patriotism is a topic that frequently surfaces in both everyday conversations as well as in research. Patriotism emphasizes a sense of identification and attachment toward one’s country (Schatz et al., 1999). In its development in empirical research, patriotism was originally suggested as “blind attachment to certain national cultural values, uncritical conformity with prevailing group ways, and rejection of other nations as outgroup” (Adorno et al., 1950). This definition was criticized as it introduced acceptance of discrimination, such as nationalism and ethnocentrism (Heaven et al., 1985; Kosterman & Feshbach, 1989). As such, research on patriotism evolved to include multiple dimensions. Staub (1997) introduced blind and constructive patriotism as separate theoretical distinction within patriotism. Blind patriotism contains the following characteristics: strict attachment to country, unconditional positive evaluation of the country, and intolerance of criticism (Staub, 1997). Constructive patriotism, on the other hand, is defined as openness to critically evaluate the country out of positive attachment to the country and desire to improve the country (Staub, 1997). To examine Staub’s bi-dimensional structure of patriotism, Schatz and colleagues developed the Blind and Constructive Patriotism Scale (1999). An example

measuring blind patriotism would be, “I support U.S. policies for the very reason that they are policies of my country.” An example measuring constructive patriotism include, “I express my love for America by supporting efforts at positive change.”

From cursory level, patriotism and country satisfaction share similar characteristic: a level of sentiment toward country. In particular, as individuals are able to express their opinion, even when they are negative toward the country (Staub, 1989), expressing negative sentiments toward country, through constructive patriotism, and country satisfaction seems to align. However, patriotism, both blind and constructive, and country satisfaction also differ for the following reason: the sense of attachment. The crucial characteristic in patriotism is the actions, whether blindly accepting or providing constructive criticism, are based on a sense of attachment to the country (Schatz et al., 1999; Staub, 1989, 1997). For country satisfaction, while individuals living in the country are able to hold sentiments toward various environmental variables within a country, attachment to the country is not always required. For example, while an individual with an ethnic minority identity may be unhappy with the treatment of that particular ethnicity in the U.S., he/she is able to express their unhappiness without a sense of attachment the United States and the internal desire to improve the U.S., not their individual well-being. This is the difference between patriotism and country satisfaction. Therefore, it can be said although patriotism and country satisfaction possess similar external characteristics, it differs semantically and measures different constructs.

Predictive Validity: Life Satisfaction

In counseling psychology research, finding results that could be applied to improve the well-being of people has been the most important objective. In fact, when ‘Title: well-being or wellbeing’ and ‘Subject: counseling or counseling psychology or psychotherapy’ is searched in PsycINFO (March, 2021), more than 100,000 peer-reviewed research papers can

be found, dating back as early as 1905. It can be also found that in research of well-being of an individual, different terms such as subjective well-being, personal well-being, happiness, and life satisfaction have been used interchangeably (Batz-Barbarich et al., 2018; Diener et al., 1999; Eddington & Shuman, 2005; Veenhoven, 2012).

Well-being is defined as a positive and meaningful outcome that enables people to perceive that their lives are going well (CDC, 2018). In counseling psychology research, we focus on the well-being of individuals, which is measured through how individuals evaluate their own lives (Diener, 2009). In that evaluation process, individuals think and feel about their lives, which is defined as ‘subjective well-being’ (Diener, 1984).

Historically, the evolution of scientific study of subjective well-being began from understanding human behavior, which was the dominant approach at the early stages of psychological research in the first half of the 20th century (Baker & Sperry, 2021; Fancher & Rutherford, 2011). Furthermore, because the development of modern psychology has stemmed from understanding various psychological disorder (Krueger & Markon, 2006), a heavy emphasis on negative emotions was prevalent (Myers & Diener, 1995). Ed Diener has been one of the crucial figures in research on subjective well-being (SWB). In Diener’s definition of SWB, people that have high SWB would also show high level of satisfaction with life (Diener et al., 2009; Eddington & Shuman, 2005).

As evidenced in previous research on country satisfaction, “country-level” variables significantly influenced life satisfaction (Bjornskov et al., 2008; Heukamp & Arino, 2011; Liu et al., 2019; Nonnenmacher & Friedrichs, 2013), in which life satisfaction is categorized by satisfaction with current, past, and future of one’s own life, others’ views of one’s life, and desire to change life (Eddington & Shuman, 2005; Pavot & Diener, 1993). As this study is intended to measure country satisfaction, which includes the influence of “country-level”

variables, this study predicts that country satisfaction will significantly predict life satisfaction. This is also in line with examining the predictive validity of the CSS, the extent a measure predicts answers to another measure (Boateng et al., 2018).

CHAPTER III

METHOD

Data collection and analysis was divided into three studies. As mentioned above, this study followed the scale development procedure suggested by Hinkin and colleagues (1997): item generation, content adequacy assessment, questionnaire administration, factor analysis, internal consistency assessment, and validity tests. Applying the scale development procedures, Study 1 included interview, item development and content adequacy assessment; Study 2 included exploratory factor analysis (EFA I) and item reduction; Study 3 included exploratory factor analysis (EFA II), confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), and reliability/validity tests.

The newly developed measure must answer two questions: 1) Is this scale measuring what it is intending to measure? 2) Is the scale producing consistent and precise results? The answers to these questions reflect the psychometric properties of the measure, and these questions are respectively connected to the validity and reliability of the newly developed scale (Boateng et al., 2018). For a newly developed scale to assure adequate reflection of the underlying construct, strong validity and reliability are both required. To obtain strong validity and reliability, the items in the scale need to accurately measure the underlying construct (Strauss & Smith, 2009).

Study 1

When developing a new scale, the first step is to determine the underlying construct of the scale (Boateng et al., 2018; Hinkin et al., 1997). In relation to determining the underlying construct, the following conditions need to be met: 1) specifying the nature of the

construct, through thorough literature review, 2) confirming that there are either no existing instrument adequately measuring the construct or justifying the reason to develop a new scale, 3) providing an operational definition, and 4) Specifying any domains based on literature review (Boateng et al., 2018). For this study, the underlying construct of interest is country satisfaction, and the literature review, justification of the development of CSS, operational definition, and suggested domains were explained in previous chapters.

Interview Participants

Individual interviews were conducted for item generation. Because the scale is intended to measure a range of satisfaction/dissatisfaction of the people living in the country, in this case the United States, this study attempted to include participants reflecting the diversity of the people living in the United States as much as possible. Participants were recruited through using the personal networks (e.g., peer's co-workers). In the recruitment process, I did not recruit members of his direct personal networks to maintain objectivity in the relationship between participants and researcher. Through the recruitment process, I exchanged contacts with 10 people. However, due to the limitation in scheduling an interview, 7 people participated in the individual interviews. The recruited participants held diverse identities; by ethnicity, gender, sexual orientation, geographical location, legal status, perceived socioeconomic status, education, and age. Table 1 shows the demographic information of the interview participants.

Table 1. Demographic information: Study 1 (N = 7)

	Age	Gender	Eth	SES	Reg	Comm	Legal
P1	30s	Male	Multiracial	Middle	Southeast	Urban	Citizen
P2	40s	Female	Latina	Lower-Middle	West	Suburban	Undocumented
P3	50s	Male	Asian	Middle	Southwest	Suburban	E2 Visa
P4	20s	Female	Latina	Low	Southeast	Urban	Green Card
P5	20s	Male	Latino	Middle	Northeast	Suburban	Green Card
P6	30s	Male	Latino	Middle	Northeast	Suburban	Citizen
P7	30s	Male	Multiracial	Upper Middle	West	Urban	Green Card

Table 1. (cont'd).

	SexOri	Edu
P1	Heterosexual	Bachelor's
P2	Heterosexual	High School
P3	Heterosexual	Bachelor's
P4	Heterosexual	Master's
P5	Gay	Certificate (College)
P6	Gay	Bachelor's
P7	Bisexual	Some College

Notes. Eth = Ethnicity, SES = Socioeconomic Status, Reg = Region of residence, Comm = Community level, Legal = Legal Status, SexOri = Sexual Orientation, Edu = Education Level (Highest Degree Completed)

Interview Questions

First, to help the participants to think specifically about the country they currently live in, all interview questions inquired about individual's country satisfaction particular to the United States. Interview questions were developed based on previous research. As one group of researchers measured country satisfaction with a single question (Morrison et al., 2011; Moyano-Diaz & Palomo-Velez, 2018), this study included an interview question directly asking country satisfaction: "What makes you happy or unhappy about the United States?" Another group of researchers attempted to categorize country-level variables based on common characteristics. The common categories that previous research has provided are: economic variables, political variables, human development and culture variables, institutional variables, and natural variables (Bjornskov et al., 2008; Nonnenmacher & Friedrichs, 2013). Although a strong theoretical support has not been established for such

categorization, this study developed interview questions based on this categorization (e.g. “Looking at the political aspects, what makes you happy or unhappy about the United States?” “Looking at the human development aspects, such as health care quality, what makes you happy or unhappy about the United States?”) When participants experienced any difficulty understanding the question, I provided examples of country-related variables theoretically belonging in the category. In total, ten interview questions were asked to participants.

Interview Procedure

Potential interview participants were contacted through my peers. Once a potential participant expressed interest in the interview, consent was given to provide the potential participant’s contact information (e-mail address). I contacted the participant and provided information on the interview and the research. Once the participant replied with consent to participate, the interviewer (myself) sent another email with informed consent form and proposed time for the interview. As the interview process occurred during the COVID-19 pandemic (May, 2020 to July, 2020), all interviews were conducted remotely via Zoom. Each interview was conducted for approximately 1 hour and participants were given \$20 for participation. No recording of the interview was involved. As a result, the interviewer wrote down participant’s answers in a password-protected Microsoft Word file.

Study 2

Using the survey instrument developed through Study 1, data were collected from the sample of a target population to conduct first EFA in Study 2 (referred as *EFA I*, later). The EFA allows to reduce items from the preliminary scale and extract factors that groups the items together (Boateng et al., 2018; Hinkin et al., 1997). The initial results of provide

understanding of the empirically derived factors based on theoretical predictions that are made from literature review and operational definitions of the targeted categories reflected by the generated items (McCoach et al., 2013).

Participants and Procedure

As explained above, participants were recruited using an online survey service, Amazon MTurk. Since the survey was targeted exclusively to the people living in the United States, I enforced a limitation on the survey through Amazon MTurk: only participants living in the United States were eligible to participate. To decide the minimum number of data required for factor analyses, various researchers have suggested the minimum number of data for 'good' data analysis (Comrey & Lee, 1992; Kline, 1994; MacCallum et al., 1999; Velicer et al., 1982). However, there has been no consensus regarding not only the absolute minimum number requirement, but also in the ratio of data to variable (Arrindell & van der Ende, 1985). In order to resolve such issue, Mundfrom and colleagues (2005) performed simulation analyses using level of communality (level of common variance shared by factors with given variables), number of factors, and number of items per factor to determine the minimum suggested sample size. Since the CSS predicts to have at least four correlated factors based on previous research, the size of the suggested minimum sample ranged from 250 to 350, depending on the level of communality and level of criterion (Mundfrom et al., 2005). The current study collected the survey results of 421 participants. After examining the responses to validity check items and completion of surveys, a total of 371 participants were included in the data analysis. In terms of age, a diverse age group participated in the survey, ranging from 20 to 68 years old ($M = 41.16$, $SD = 11.71$). Table 2 shows demographic information of participants used in Study 2 data analysis.

Table 2. Demographic Information of Participants: Study 2 (N = 371).

		<i>N</i>	Percentage (%)
Gender	Male	221	59.6
	Female	150	40.4
	Non-Binary	0	0
	Transgender	0	0
	Other	0	0
Ethnicity	White	294	79.2
	Asian/Asian American	33	8.9
	Black/African American	23	6.2
	Hispanic Origin	13	3.5
	American Indian/Alaska Native	4	1.1
	Multiracial	3	0.8
	Other	1	0.3
Legal Status	U.S. Citizen	362	97.6
	Green Card Holder	9	2.4
	Non-Resident Alien (Work Visa/OPT)	0	0
	International Student/Dependent	0	0
	Undocumented	0	0
Socioeconomic Status	Middle Class	225	60.6
	Upper Middle Class	68	18.3
	Lower Middle Class	52	14.0
	Lower Class	15	4.0
	Upper Class	11	3.0
Sexual Orientation	Heterosexual	291	78.4
	Bisexual	72	19.4
	Asexual	4	1.1
	Gay/Lesbian	3	0.8
	Other	1	0.3
Region	Northeast U.S.	108	29.1
	Southeast U.S.	76	20.5
	Midwest U.S.	71	19.1
	Southwest U.S.	60	16.2
	West U.S.	55	14.8
	Hawaii or Alaska	1	0.3
Community	Urban	197	53.1
	Suburban	116	30.2
	Rural	62	16.7
Education Level	Bachelor's Degree	208	56.1
	Master's Degree	95	25.6
	Associate Degree	30	8.1
	High School	23	6.2
	Doctoral Degree	13	3.5
	Other	2	0.5

After the content adequacy assessment, the generated items were developed into questions. Items were constructed in a way that participants are asked to rate each item on a

7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*Very Unhappy*) to 7 (*Very Happy*), based on Lissitz and Green's (1975) findings that 5- or 7-point scales create variance necessary for examining the relationship among items and scales and create adequate reliability estimates. Each item was asked with a question, "How happy/unhappy are you about the following aspect of the United States?" followed by the country satisfaction topic (e.g., democracy in the U.S. political system).

The survey for the preliminary data collection was administered using an online survey service, Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk). Amazon MTurk is a platform operated by Amazon that allows for businesses and researchers to hire remote workers to perform tasks (Amazon Mechanical Turk, 2021). In Amazon MTurk, employers and researchers post tasks known as *Human Intelligence Tasks* (HITs), such as identifying specific content in an image or video, writing product descriptions, or answering questions, etc. Participants browse the task postings and complete the posted tasks in exchange for a rate set by the employer. To place tasks, the requesting programs use an open application programming interface (API). Since the Amazon MTurk poses some challenges in uploading the survey questions directly due to the requirement to use the API (which involves computer coding), the survey was created using Qualtrics, a cloud-based platform to create and distribute web-based surveys (Qualtrics XM, 2020), and then connected to Amazon MTurk. A participant would find a task posting on Amazon MTurk, which will provide a link to the survey created in Qualtrics. Once a participant completes the survey, they will receive a code to put into the Amazon MTurk and receive compensation. Each participant received \$0.50 for their participation in the survey. Once the targeted number of data were collected, data were analyzed using statistical analysis software of SPSS 27.0 and *Mplus* 7.4. After eliminating incomplete and invalid

cases, a total of 371 data were used for exploratory factor analysis (EFA).

Survey Packet and Measures

Informed Consent

The survey for preliminary data collection was created using Qualtrics. The survey pack consisted of informed consent form, demographic information, and the preliminary version of the CSS. In informed consent form, participants were provided with the purpose of the survey, procedures, information being asked in the survey, risk/benefits, compensation, confidentiality, contact information of the investigators, and statement of consent. Due to technical limitations in providing verbal written consent, it was assumed that participants consented to participate in the survey by proceeding on to the survey. To ensure that participants are given freedom in their participation, investigators ensured in the informed consent form that participants will not be receiving any penalty when they withdraw from the survey without completion.

Demographic Information

Once a participant consented to participate in the survey, they were asked to enter their demographic information. Participants were asked to include: age, gender (male, female, non-binary, transgender, other), racial/ethnic background (White, Black or African American, Asian or Asian American, Hispanic Origin, American Indian or Alaskan Native, Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander, Multiracial, Other), legal status (U.S. Citizen, U.S. Resident, Non-resident Alien, International Student or Dependent, Undocumented), religious background, perceived socioeconomic status (Lower Class, Lower Middle class, Middle Class, Upper Middle Class, Upper Class), sexual orientation (Heterosexual, Bisexual, Gay/Lesbian, Asexual, Other), region living in the U.S. (Northeast, Southeast, Midwest,

Southwest, West, Hawaii/Alaska), community type (urban vs. suburban vs. rural) and education level (High school degree, Associate's degree, Bachelor's degree, Master's degree, Doctoral degree, Other). As the U.S. society consists of people with diverse identities, the investigators expected that the choices suggested in each question may not cover the identities of all participants. As such, some demographic information was given the option to manually answer when they select 'Other'.

The Country Satisfaction Scale (CSS) – Preliminary Version

The preliminary version of the CSS was used for the data collection. A total of 59 items were divided into four domains (political, institutional, economic, and social field) based on previous research (Bjornskov et al., 2008; Nonnenmacher & Friedrichs, 2013). *Political satisfaction* is defined as the level of satisfaction towards the country based on the political structure and its influence on one's life satisfaction (Bjornskov et al., 2008). A sample CSS item that represents political satisfaction includes, "Politicians working together to make the U.S. better." *Institutional satisfaction* is defined as the level of satisfaction towards the country based on the quality of governance services (Bjornskov et al., 2008). A sample CSS item that represents institutional satisfaction includes, "Public (civic) service qualities (e.g., city hall, postal services, DMV, etc.) in the U.S." *Economic satisfaction* is defined as the level of satisfaction towards the country based on economic factors, such as stability, equality, and globalization (Bjornskov et al., 2008). A sample CSS item that represents economic satisfaction includes, "General cost of living in the U.S." Finally, *social satisfaction* is defined as the level of satisfaction based on the interactional components of the country (Bjornskov et al., 2008; Nonnenmacher & Friedrichs, 2013). A sample CSS item representing social satisfaction includes, "Acceptance of minorities in the U.S." Higher scores indicate

higher levels of country satisfaction. To ensure the validity of the survey, investigators included six validity check items, instructing participants to click a certain number on the survey item in order to proceed. In sum, including the 59 CSS items and 6 validity items, a total of 65 items were administered in the survey. The Cronbach's alpha of the CSS was .98.

Data Analysis

EFA was performed in *Mplus 7.4* (Muthen & Muthen, 1998-2015) with maximum likelihood estimation with robust error (MLR) to explore and evaluate the factor structure of the CSS using data ($N = 371$).

Study 3

The subsequent step after EFA I process is the scale evaluation process. In Study 3, scale evaluation, also called the test of dimensionality, examines the applicability of the hypothesized factors or factor structure extracted from a previous analysis using a new sample of data (Boateng et al., 2018; Brown, 2014). Tests of dimensionality enables to assess whether the measurement of items, underlying factors, and function are the transferrable across independent samples (Boateng et al., 2018). To ensure that the factors and items of the scale remain identical across different samples, this study collected another set of data from the sample of the target population (Data 2). Data 2 collected in Study 3 were split at half to resemble the sample characteristics, resulting in Sample 1 and Sample 2. Afterwards, additional EFA as well as CFA were performed to establish evidence for the internal structure of a scale (Hinkin et al., 1997). Since the CSS is newly developed, the theoretical/empirical basis for the factor structure of the CSS determined from a single EFA procedure (i.e., EFA I) could be considered weak (e.g., Hancock et al., 2019). Given a general rule that requires *at least* two samples for confirming the internal factor structure (McCoach et al., 2013), I

conducted another EFA (referring to *EFA II*) using a separate sample, Sample 1, to replicate the internal structure of the CSS (i.e., the number of factors and the relations between items and factors) using the revised scale from Study 2. I then conducted CFA to cross-validate the identified factor structure in a different sample, Sample 2. Once the factor analysis process finalized the scale items and showed significant model fit, reliability and validity of the CSS were examined.

Participants and Procedure

The survey was also created using Qualtrics, and then connected to the Amazon MTurk. Since the survey was targeted specific to the people living in the United States, I added a restriction through the Amazon MTurk to participate in the study: only people residing in the U.S. can participate. Participants were collected using an online survey service, Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk). Since the data analysis required the sample to be divided into halves and be examined separately for the exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis, a larger number of samples were required. A total of 818 participants were recruited from Amazon MTurk. All participants currently lived in the United States. After eliminating incomplete and invalid data, a total of 802 (410 males, 384 females, 7 non-binary, 1 transgender) samples were used in data analysis. Table 3 summarizes the demographic information of participants in Study 3. In terms of age, a diverse age group participated in the survey, ranging from 18 years old to 76 years old ($M = 37.46$, $SD = 11.47$).

After eliminating data that were either incomplete or invalid, a total of 802 data were used for data analysis. To conduct EFA and CFA, the total sample was randomly split into halves, Sample 1 ($N = 435$) and Sample 2 ($N = 397$), using the 'Split Cases' function in SPSS 27.0. The two samples, Samples 1 and 2, showed the similar demographic information and

resembled well the whole sample (see Table 3).

Sample 1 (N = 435). 51.5% of the participants were male, 47.6% were female, and 0.9% were non-binary. 61.1% were White identified, 15.4% were Asian/Asian American, 12.9% were Black/African American, 5.3% were Hispanic origin, 2.8% were multiracial, 1.4% were American Indian/Alaska Native, 0.7% were other identified, and 0.5% were Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander. 92.9% were American citizens, 6.0% were Green Card holders, 0.7% were Non-Resident Aliens (Work Visa or OPT Holder), and 0.5% were international students.

Sample 2 (N = 397). 51.4% of the participants were female, 48.4% were male, and 0.3% were transgender. 61.2% were White identified, 15.9% were Asian/Asian American, 12.8% were Black/African American, 5% were Hispanic origin, 3.3% were multiracial, 1.3% were American Indian/Alaska Native, and 0.5% were Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander. 92.7% were American citizens, 5.8% were Green Card holders, 1.3% were Non-Resident Aliens (Work Visa or OPT Holder), and 0.3% were international students.

Table 3. Demographic information of Participants: Study 3

		Total (<i>N</i> = 801)		Sample 1 (<i>N</i> = 435)		Sample 2 (<i>N</i> = 397)	
		<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
Gender	Male	410	51.2	224	51.5	192	48.4
	Female	383	47.8	207	47.6	204	51.4
	Non-Binary	7	0.9	4	0.9	0	0.0
	Transgender	1	0.1	0	0.0	1	0.3
	Other	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Ethnicity	White	496	61.9	266	61.1	243	61.2
	Asian/Asian American	118	14.7	67	15.4	63	15.9
	Black/African American	110	13.7	56	12.9	51	12.8
	Hispanic Origin	40	5.0	23	5.3	20	5.0
	Multiracial	23	2.9	12	2.8	13	3.3
	American Indian/Alaska Native	9	1.1	6	1.4	5	1.3
	Other	3	0.4	3	0.7	0	0.0
	Hawaiian/Pacific Islander	2	0.2	2	0.5	2	0.5
	U.S. Citizen	748	93.4	404	92.9	368	92.7
	Green Card Holder	41	5.1	26	6.0	23	5.8
Legal Status	Non-Resident Alien (Work Visa/OPT)	8	1.0	3	0.7	5	1.3
	International Student/Dependent	4	0.5	2	0.5	1	0.3
	Undocumented	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
	Middle Class	400	49.9	218	50.1	193	48.6
Socioeconomic Status	Lower Middle Class	194	24.2	105	24.1	106	26.7
	Upper Middle Class	129	16.1	73	16.8	60	15.1
	Lower Class	73	9.1	37	8.5	37	9.3
	Upper Class	5	0.6	2	0.5	1	0.3
Sexual Orientation	Heterosexual	682	85.1	364	83.7	342	86.1
	Bisexual	86	10.7	51	11.7	40	10.1
	Gay/Lesbian	19	2.4	12	2.8	9	2.3
	Asexual	10	1.2	6	1.4	6	1.5
	Other	4	0.5	2	0.5	0	0.0
Region	Northeast U.S.	211	26.3	105	24.1	97	24.4
	Southeast U.S.	203	25.3	108	24.8	103	25.9
	Midwest U.S.	170	21.2	94	21.6	87	21.9
	West U.S.	125	15.6	64	14.7	64	16.1
	Southwest U.S.	82	10.2	56	12.9	40	10.1
	Hawaii or Alaska	10	1.2	8	1.8	6	1.5
Community	Suburban	371	46.3	207	47.6	195	49.1
	Urban	317	39.6	172	39.5	146	36.8
	Rural	113	14.1	56	12.9	56	14.1
Education Level	Bachelor's Degree	398	49.7	214	49.2	192	48.4
	Master's Degree	150	18.7	86	19.8	76	19.1
	High School	128	16.0	66	15.2	74	18.6
	Associate Degree	98	12.2	57	13.1	46	11.6
	Doctoral Degree	18	2.2	6	1.4	6	1.5
	Other	9	1.1	6	1.4	3	0.8

Survey Packet and Measures

Informed Consent

The survey for preliminary data collection was created using Qualtrics. In the informed consent form, participants were provided with the purpose of the survey, procedures, information being asked in the survey, risk/benefits, compensation, confidentiality, contact information of the investigators, and statement of consent. Due to the technical limitations in providing verbal written consent, it was assumed and agreed upon that participants consented to participate in the survey by proceeding on to the survey. To ensure that participants are given freedom in their participation, investigators ensured in the informed consent form that participants will not be receiving any penalty when they withdraw from the survey without completion.

Demographic Information

To examine the known-groups validity of the CSS, to observe the difference in scores by groups, demographic information was required. Same criteria and options for demographic information were applied to data collection.

The Country Satisfaction Scale (CSS) - Revised

The revised version of the CSS based on the first EFA was used for the data collection. A total of 29 items are divided into three factors (*Systemic Structures, Equality & Acceptance, and Resources & Benefits*) that were found in the preliminary data analysis. *Systemic Structures* was defined as the impact of established systemic structures and their performance on country satisfaction. Examples belonging in systemic structures include democracy and unbiasedness of media. *Equality & Acceptance* is defined as the level of country satisfaction based on the perceived level of acceptance and equality within the

country. Examples belonging in *Equality & Acceptance* include different treatment by race, equal opportunities for success, and acceptance of minorities. Finally, *Resources & Benefits* is defined as the level of country satisfaction based on the perceived level of benefits and resources within the country. Examples of *Resources & Benefits* include safety living in the country, and amount of natural resources. In the survey, higher scores would indicate stronger level of country satisfaction. To ensure the validity of the responses, investigators included six validity check items, instructing participants to click a certain number on the scale in order to proceed. In sum, including the scale items and the validity items, a total of 35 items were administered in the survey. The internal consistency for the 29-item CSS was .95. After the second exploratory factor analysis, a total of 22 items were retained. The Cronbach's alpha of the 22-item CSS was .95.

Blind and Constructive Patriotism Scale (BCPS)

BCPS, a 16-item scale which reflects an individual's level of patriotism (Schatz, Staub, & Lavine, 1999), was administered to test the construct validity of the CSS. BCPS is composed of blind (e.g., "People who do not wholeheartedly support the country should live elsewhere.") and constructive patriotism (e.g., "If I criticize my country, I do so for the love of my country."), both measuring emotional attachment to the country. BCPS is answered on a six-point Likert scale ranging from 1 ('completely disagree') to 6 ('completely agree'), with higher score indicating a high level of blind or constructive patriotism of an individual. The internal consistency for the subscales of the BCPS were .82 for blind patriotism and .75 for constructive patriotism (Livi et al., 2014). For validity tests, the subscale scores will be used. In this study, the internal consistency for the subscales were .88 for blind patriotism and .84 for constructive patriotism.

Social Well-Being Scale

Social Well-Being Scale was developed by Keyes (1998) which measures various aspects of individual's circumstances and functioning in society. Social well-being is composed of five dimensions: social integration (quality of relationship to society), social acceptance (level of belief in goodness of the members of the society), social contribution (evaluation of self-value in relation to society), social actualization (evaluation of the potential of the society), and social coherence (perception of the quality of the society). Social Well-being Scale is composed of 32 items in total. For the purpose of this study, to measure the construct validity, only items representing social integration and social actualization was used. Based on the comparison of the definitions of the domain, social integration and social actualization conceptually fits the most with country satisfaction. Therefore, the 14 items representing social integration and social actualization were used. The Cronbach's alphas for the test for social integration and social actualization for the original study by Keyes (1998) were .69 and .81 respectively. For the current study, the internal consistency (Cronbach's α) for each dimension was .68 for social integration and .51 for social actualization.

Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS)

SWLS is a five-item scale measuring an individual's general satisfaction with life (Diener, et al., 1985). A sample item on the SWLS is "*In most ways, my life is close to my ideal.*" Participants will be asked to rate each item on a seven-point Likert-scale ranging from 1 ('Strongly Disagree') to 7 ('Strongly Agree'), with higher scores indicating higher levels of life satisfaction. The Cronbach's alphas of SWLS ranged from .83 to .87 (Pavot & Diener, 1993). For this study, the Cronbach's alpha was .92

Data Analysis

EFA and CFA were performed in *Mplus* 7.4 (Muthen & Muthen, 1998-2015) with maximum likelihood estimation with robust error (MLR) to explore and evaluate the factor structure of the CSS using data from Sample 1 ($N = 435$) and Sample 2 ($N = 397$), respectively. Particularly, in CFA, I tested the hypothesized factor structure from the results of EFA II and at the same time, explored alternative factor structures of the CSS. Alternative models that were considered in this study include: (1) a single factor model, (2) a second-order model with multiple first-order factors, (3) a bifactor model, and (4) ($S-1$)-bifactor model. The reason for examining alternative models, including bifactor models, will be explained in Chapter 4.

Based on the selected factor model, I then computed reliability coefficients for the CSS. For reliability, I calculated coefficient *omega* (ω ; McDonald, 1999), which is a factor analytic model-based reliability estimate. Although coefficient alpha is the most population estimate of internal consistency reported in psychological research, many psychometric studies on coefficient alpha provided evidence to support that coefficient omega would be a more sensible index of internal consistency compared to coefficient alpha (e.g., Dunn et al., 2014; Graham, 2006; Raykov, 1997, 1998; Zinbarg, Revelle, et al., 2007; Zinbarg, Yovel, et al., 2006; Zinbarg et al., 2005). The primary difficulty with the use of alpha as a measure of internal consistency (see Dunn et al., 2014 for other challenges with alpha) is that the assumptions to use Cronbach's alpha (e.g., tau-equivalence) is usually not achieved in most data. When Cronbach's alpha is used inappropriately with data that does not meet the assumption, the alpha value becomes inflated and attenuates the internal consistency of the measure. Under violations of coefficient alpha assumptions, therefore, coefficient omega

outperforms alpha.

Lastly, to find validity evidence, I conducted correlation and regression analyses between the CSS and measures of patriotism, social well-being, and life satisfaction. For known-group validity, I performed a series of multivariate analyses of variance (MANOVA) and multivariate analyses of covariance (MANCOVA) to examine the mean differences in the factor scores of the CSS by demographic variables (i.e., gender, ethnicity, legal status, SES, sexual orientation, region, community, education level), followed by univariate analyses of variance (ANOVA) if multivariate effects were significant. Chapter 4 will provide more details on how reliability and validity tests were performed using the aforementioned procedures.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

This chapter details the results and findings in the development of the CSS. This chapter largely provides the item development process, findings from the EFA I process in Study 2 to EFA II, CFA, reliability, and validity tests in Study 3.

Study 1

Development of Initial Item Pool

After determining the underlying construct and the domains, potential items can be developed. Items can be developed through deductive and inductive methods (Boateng et al., 2018; Hinkin, 1995). Deductive method uses previous research and reviews relevant domains and items used in scales measuring similar construct (Boateng et al., 2018; Hinkin, 1995; Raykov & Marcoulides, 2011). Inductive method uses qualitative methods, such as focus groups and individual interviews to develop items (Hinkin, 1995; Morgado et al., 2017). It is considered best to combine both deductive and inductive methods: using literature review to find theoretical support for the definition of the domain and using qualitative methods to develop items based on the definition (Boateng et al., 2018; Clarke & Watson, 2016). It is also recommended that the preliminary items generated using both deductive and inductive method should be broader and more comprehensive than the researcher's theoretical definition of the construct (Boateng et al., 2018; Clarke & Watson, 2016).

In this study, the construct of interest is country satisfaction, which is defined as a range of emotions an individual feels toward the country he/she lives in. The review of previous research on country satisfaction or environmental variables defined as country-level

variables show that there have been inconsistent methods to measure country satisfaction. Country satisfaction was either asked directly on country satisfaction and environmental variables (mostly economy-related variables), or a large number of environmental variables that were defined as country-level were analyzed without an established theoretical basis on their categorization. As such, developing a new scale to measure country satisfaction was justified. To generate the item pool for the country satisfaction scale, I used both methods: developing items based on previous research and conducting interviews.

Once all interviews were conducted, the interviewer examined the answers from each interviewer and extracted topics or concepts that the participants are happy or unhappy about the United States. For example, when a participant said, “You know, I would be happier if the United States treated immigrants with a more positive attitude.”, the interviewer extracted “treatment toward immigrants” as a potential topic. When there was an overlap of topics between the answers from participants, the interviewer kept the topics separate unless the topic was identical (e.g., “overall education level” vs. “public education quality”). After listing the topics that were extracted from the interviews, I also added other topics that are related to the categorization suggested in previous research, but not included in the interview. As it is recommended to develop items at least twice the intended number of items in the scale (Boateng et al., 2018), a total of 60 preliminary items were developed.

According to Hinkin and colleagues (1997), the next process after item generation is the content adequacy assessment process. The purpose of content adequacy assessment is to examine the content validity, the extent the content of the scale accurately reflects what it is intended to measure (DeVellis, 2016; McPhail, 2007). It is suggested that the items in the scale must satisfy the following five conditions (Guion, 1977): 1) the items are connected to the generally accepted meaning of the construct, 2) domain is unambiguously defined, 3) the

content is relevant to the purpose of the scale, 4) qualified experts agree that the items are adequately sampled, and 5) the response must be reliably observed and evaluated. As mentioned, the content adequacy assessment involves the generated items being reviewed by the experts.

To examine the content validity of the scale items, it is best to be examined by both the expert judges in the field and potential participants of the scale (Boateng et al., 2018; Guion, 1977). As such, this study sent the generated items to two experts in the field of psychology and two potential participants. The two experts in the field were both faculty members at their respective universities. One expert specialized in psychometrics and scale development, and the other specialized in counseling psychology. The 60 preliminary items were sent to the first expert and the expert was asked to determine whether each item measured country satisfaction, and then asked to categorize the items by common characteristics. I provided categorization guideline based on the categorization used in previous research (Bjornskov et al., 2008; Nonnenmacher & Friedrichs, 2013). Once the first expert returned the content adequacy assessment, the preliminary items were sent to the other expert. The other expert examined the content adequacy assessment done by the first expert and confirmed the categorization. If there were any difference of opinions in the categorization, then the second expert was asked to suggest their own categorization. The content adequacy assessment from the experts in the respective fields of psychometrics and counseling psychology advised that one item (“strength of the U.S. in the world”) is difficult to be categorized into a domain. Therefore, the item was deleted, and 59 items were retained in total.

The preliminary items were simultaneously sent to two people who are eligible to participate in the study. One individual is identified as a Black-identified, heterosexual, cis-

gender American male in their early 20s, and the other individual is identified as an Asian-identified, heterosexual, cis-gender female in their early 30s, who is a legal resident (H-1B Visa holder) in the U.S. The procedures applied to the experts in the field were identically applied to the experts in the target population. The eligible individuals did not report any issues with the contents of the items. Therefore, a total of 59 items were used for the preliminary data collection in Study 2.

Study 2

The purpose of the preliminary EFA was to examine how the scale items are grouped together to represent common characteristics and eliminate items that are conceptually redundant or empirically less related to the proposed factor structure (Boateng et al., 2018).

Before conducting factor analysis, to obtain accurate results, the sample of data were preliminarily examined for normality and outliers. Although factor analysis does not have the direct assumptions of normality or continuousness of the items, items with non-normal distributions, outlying cases, and/or fewer scale points (i.e., categorical nature of items) can affect EFA results including bias in EFA parameter estimates. This is because EFA estimation is typically based on the Pearson product-moment correlation matrices (Bandalos & Finney, 2019). Table 4 presents descriptive statistics of all 59 potential scale items administered in Study 2. The skewness and kurtosis values showed that there were no items that indicate non-normality based on the criteria of substantial deviation from normality as an absolute skewness value > 2 and an absolute kurtosis value > 7 (West et al., 1995). However, the results of the Shapiro-Wilk normality tests, along with visual inspection, provided evidence about the deviation from normality of some items ($ps < .01$).

Table 4. Descriptive Statistics of 59 Preliminary CSS items (N = 371)

Item	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Min	Max	Skewness	Kurtosis
1. Democracy in the U.S. political system.	5.03	1.55	1	7	-0.80	-0.08
2. Public education system in the U.S.	4.97	1.68	1	7	-0.75	-0.45
3. General cost of living in the U.S.	4.68	1.72	1	7	-0.58	-0.60
4. Overall tax rates in the U.S.	4.59	1.75	1	7	-0.53	-0.69
5. Freedom of expression in the U.S.	5.40	1.35	1	7	-1.06	1.13
6. Overall education system in the U.S.	5.04	1.68	1	7	-0.71	-0.48
7. Acceptance of minorities in the U.S. society.	4.86	1.60	1	7	-0.65	-0.36
8. Treatment of veterans in the U.S.	4.86	1.61	1	7	-0.66	-0.37
9. Cohesive leadership from the U.S. government.	4.50	1.90	1	7	-0.55	-0.92
10. Health care quality in the U.S.	4.89	1.84	1	7	-0.74	-0.55
11. Division of the U.S. society by political ideology.	4.34	1.99	1	7	-0.42	-1.12
12. How dedicated the U.S. citizens are in voting.	5.32	1.34	1	7	-0.94	0.59
13. Judicial system structure in the U.S.	5.02	1.52	1	7	-0.83	0.09
14. Economic disparity in the U.S.	4.48	1.86	1	7	-0.53	-0.91
15. Current political leadership in the U.S.	4.63	2.00	1	7	-0.64	-0.93
16. Amount of opportunities for success in the U.S.	5.21	1.55	1	7	-0.99	0.34
17. How the different levels of government (federal to state to city/township) work together.	4.82	1.61	1	7	-0.62	-0.40
18. Different treatments by race in the U.S.	4.43	1.82	1	7	-0.52	-0.90
19. Financial privileges in the U.S. in comparison with other countries.	5.16	1.53	1	7	-1.02	0.61
20. Sociopolitical structure of the U.S.	4.85	1.56	1	7	-0.78	-0.03
21. Health care costs in the U.S.	4.35	2.05	1	7	-0.43	-1.19
22. Acceptance of Lesbian/Gay/Bisexual/Trans/Queer+ populations in the U.S. society.	4.77	1.60	1	7	-0.66	-0.30
23. Politicians working together to make the U.S. better	4.61	1.90	1	7	-0.61	-0.86
24. Police services in the U.S.	5.03	1.65	1	7	-1.05	0.44
25. Sense of social security that U.S. gives me.	4.96	1.58	1	7	-0.81	0.00
26. Acceptance of immigrants in the U.S. society.	4.88	1.57	1	7	-0.74	-0.21
27. Overall road conditions in the U.S.	5.20	1.48	1	7	-0.87	0.20
28. Socioeconomic gap in the U.S. society.	4.60	1.82	1	7	-0.61	-0.74
29. Acceptance of different religions in the U.S. society.	5.26	1.39	1	7	-1.12	1.15
30. Amount of televised sports in the U.S.	5.35	1.40	1	7	-1.10	1.07
31. Equal opportunities for success in the U.S.	5.12	1.57	1	7	-1.04	0.55
32. Election system in the U.S.	4.95	1.72	1	7	-0.90	-0.13
33. Public (civic) service qualities (e.g. city hall, postal service, DMV, etc.) in the U.S.	5.10	1.46	1	7	-0.93	0.42
34. Availability of ethnic minority communities in the U.S.	5.14	1.38	1	7	-0.84	0.65
35. Accommodations for the disabled in the U.S.	5.08	1.43	1	7	-0.99	0.68
36. Availability of resources in the U.S. schools.	4.92	1.58	1	7	-0.77	-0.32
37. Employment rate in the U.S.	4.88	1.76	1	7	-0.71	-0.56
38. Overall minimum wage in the U.S.	4.67	1.78	1	7	-0.62	-0.64
39. How the U.S. citizens help the ones in need.	5.20	1.46	1	7	-0.80	0.09
40. Distribution of wealth in the U.S. society.	4.57	1.87	1	7	-0.57	-0.81

Table 4 (cont'd)

Item	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Min	Max	Skewness	Kurtosis
41. Power position of the U.S. in the world.	5.25	1.52	1	7	-1.09	0.75
42. Military force of the U.S.	5.41	1.41	1	7	-1.20	1.25
43. How safe I feel living in the U.S.	5.51	1.37	1	7	-1.37	1.97
44. How well the U.S. co-operates with other countries.	5.19	1.50	1	7	-1.02	0.70
45. Amount of crimes in the U.S. society	4.40	1.85	1	7	-0.38	-1.05
46. Friendliness of the U.S. citizens	5.29	1.38	1	7	-0.90	0.42
47. Control of the U.S. economy by large corporations.	4.41	1.82	1	7	-0.57	-0.81
48. Medical service quality in the U.S.	5.22	1.52	1	7	-1.04	0.72
49. Unbiasedness of media in the U.S.	4.43	1.96	1	7	-0.58	-0.92
50. Control of illegal substances in the U.S.	4.65	1.70	1	7	-0.59	-0.56
51. Opportunities to fulfill civic duties (e.g. voting, jury, etc.)	5.35	1.30	1	7	-1.04	1.15
52. Amount of natural resources in the U.S.	5.42	1.32	1	7	-0.92	0.64
53. Natural beauty in the U.S.	5.75	1.24	1	7	-1.37	2.11
54. Systemic barriers in the U.S. for personal success	4.78	1.69	1	7	-0.72	-0.28
55. Role of the U.S. in global economy.	5.33	1.32	1	7	-0.98	0.94
56. How the U.S. politicians listens to the constituents.	4.52	1.75	1	7	-0.53	-0.82
57. How well the different identity groups (e.g. race, gender, religion, socioeconomic status, etc.) in the U.S. live together.	4.96	1.53	1	7	-0.81	0.01
58. Diversity of the U.S. society.	5.42	1.28	1	7	-1.07	1.30
59. Discriminations in the U.S. society.	4.47	1.89	1	7	-0.45	-0.94

Exploratory Factor Analysis I

Given a lack of a *priori* knowledge concerning the factor structure of the Country Satisfaction Scale (CSS), EFA was first performed to explore the internal structure (i.e., dimensionality) of the scale items, and the extent to which the between-item relationships are internally consistent (Boateng et al., 2018; McCoach et al., 2013). In EFA, latent factors underlying the item correlations are identified, representing the shared characteristics in responses among the items (Hinkin et al., 1997). Thus, the number of factors and the factor loadings of the items onto each factor were examined by following recommended EFA practices (Costello & Osborne, 2005; Kahn, 2006).

In CSS, the preliminary scale began with 59 items. To examine the suitability of the

data for EFA (Dodge, 2008; Vogt & Johnson, 2011), Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy (Kaiser & Rice, 1974), which assesses the proportion of variance explained by the underlying factors, and Bartlett's (1950) test of sphericity, which examines the correlation matrix of items to see if the items are not orthogonal, were used in SPSS 27.0. The KMO statistic was 0.98, which is larger than 0.80 (Dodge, 2008; Vogt & Johnson, 2011), indicating the data is suitable for EFA. The results of the Bartlett's test further showed that the sample is adequate for performing EFA, $\chi^2(1711) = 19689.30, p < .001$.

Next, a factor extraction method was decided based on the characteristics of the data examined. Maximum likelihood method, one of common estimation methods in EFA, was used to extract the factors. This maximum likelihood estimation is an inferential approach and also has advantages of obtaining standard errors of model parameters, allowing statistical significance testing, and tests of the goodness of fit of the model (Bandalos & Finney, 2019; Fabrigar et al., 1999). In particular, because the distribution of item responses slightly deviated from normality, maximum likelihood with robust error (MLR) method, which is robust to non-normality, was used for factor analysis, which is available in *Mplus 7.4* (Muthen & Muthen, 1998-2015). Regarding factor rotation for clarifying the data structure and ultimately enhancing factor interpretability, as some correlations among the factors underlying the CSS are expected, rather than assuming the independence of the factors, oblique rotation method was used. It might help avoiding the loss of valuable information and theoretically providing a more accurate solution if the factors are correlated (Costello & Osborne, 2005).

To determine the number of factors, five methods commonly adopted in the literature of scale development were employed (e.g., Bandalos & Finney, 2019; Costello & Osborne, 2005; Kahn, 2006; Worthington & Whittaker, 2006): (1) Cattell's (1966) scree plot, (2)

Kaiser's (1960) rule of having eigenvalues greater than 1, (3) the variance explained by the factor model, (4) a least three items loading .40 or higher on every factor, and (5) conceptual interpretability for the pattern of factor. The scree plot indicated that the last substantial drop in eigenvalues occurs after the third factor, suggesting retaining the first three factors.

Kaiser's criterion indicated the retention of five factors, but the variance explained by the fourth and fifth factors was small (< 2.0%). Also, only two and one items loaded .40 or higher on the fourth and fifth factors, respectively. Although I hypothesized four content categories of the CSS based on previous research, a factor with fewer than three strongly loading items is generally weak and unstable (Costello & Osborne, 2005; Yong & Pearce, 2013), leading to decide the three-factor solution as the best representation of the CSS. Thus, I ran a series of EFAs by fixing the number of factors to three and sequentially removed items following the criteria listed below (see Kahn, 2006; Worthington & Whittaker, 2006). Table 5 presents the factor loadings of the initial EFA with three factors for all 59 items before item removal. The initial EFA results indicated that three factors explained about 61.6% of variance.

Table 5. Factor Loadings of the CSS with 59 Items: Study 2 (N = 371).

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
2. Public Education System Quality	.95*	.02	-.19
23. Politicians Co-Operating	.92*	-.04	-.09
11. Division of Society by Political Ideology	.86*	-.12	.10
49. Unbiasedness of Media	.86*	-.13	-.11
6. Overall Education System Quality	.81*	.13	-.11
9. Cohesive Leadership from the Government	.80*	-.07	.14
56. Politicians Listening to Constituents	.80*	-.01	.11
21. Health Care Costs	.76*	-.05	.22
36. Availability of Resources in Schools	.71*	.18	.00
17. Governments Co-operating	.70*	.16	.02
50. Control of Illegal Substances	.70*	.07	.05
10. Health Care Quality	.69*	.06	.10
47. Control of the Economy by Large Corporations	.65*	.05	.27
1. Democracy in Political System	.61*	.28	-.12

Table 5 (cont'd)

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
20. Sociopolitical Structure	.59*	.14	.17
3. General Cost of Living	.59*	.08	.27
32. Election System	.57*	.23	.10
40. Distribution of Wealth in Society	.55*	.08	.38
45. Amount of Crimes in Society	.53*	-.03	.30
15. Current Political Leadership	.52*	.05	.38
57. Different Identities Living Harmoniously	.51*	.23	.10
4. Overall Tax Rates	.50*	.09	.23
25. Sense of Social Security	.49*	.33	.13
48. Medical Service Qualities	.49*	.31	-.01
37. Employment Rate	.48*	.22	.26
13. Judicial System Structure Quality	.47*	.33	.15
54. Systemic Barriers for Personal Success	.45*	.09	.39
8. Treatment of Veterans	.44*	.15	.25
27. Overall Road Conditions	.40*	.30	.14
12. Dedication of Citizens in Voting	.40*	.32	-.10
53. Natural Beauty	-.26	.75*	-.14
51. Opportunities to Fulfill Civic Duties	.06	.69*	.00
42. Military Force	-.03	.64*	.16
43. Safe Living in the Country	.17	.63*	-.02
52. Amount of Natural Resources	.04	.62*	.04
55. Role in the Global Economy	.20	.58*	.13
58. Diversity in Society	.17	.57*	-.03
41. Power Position in the World	.19	.53*	.18
29. Acceptance of Religion	-.02	.52*	.36
34. Availability of Ethnic Minority Communities	.26	.49*	.16
19. Financial Privileges in comparison to Other Countries	.11	.48*	.31
5. Freedom of Expression	.33	.47*	-.18
46. Friendliness of Citizens	.18	.46*	.21
35. Accommodations for the Disabled	.26	.44*	.13
16. Amount of Opportunities for Success	.36	.44*	.10
30. Amount of Televised Sports	.17	.43*	.05
24. Police Services	.16	.30	.51*
26. Acceptance of Immigrants	.12	.31	.43*
14. Economic Disparity	.60*	-.10	.44*
28. Socioeconomic Gap	.55*	.00	.44*
59. Discriminations in Society	.50*	-.07	.47*
33. Civic Service Qualities	.44*	.49*	-.06
31. Equal Opportunities for Success	.10	.42*	.41*
18. Different Treatment by Race	.41*	-.01	.52*
38. Overall Minimum Wage	.42*	.13	.45*
22. Acceptance of LGBTQ+ Identities	.16	.28	.33
39. How the Citizens Help People in Need	.37	.38	.14
44. Co-operation with other Countries	.31	.39	.21
7. Acceptance of Minorities	.26	.35	.32

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
% of explained variance	53.42	5.55	2.66
Eigenvalue	31.52	3.22	1.57

* $p < .05$

For selecting and retaining items, the following three recommendations were considered (e.g., Costello & Osborne, 2005; Worthington & Whittaker, 2006): (1) items with factor loadings of 0.40 or above were retained, as items with factor loadings below 0.30 are considered inadequate (Nunnally, 1978); (2) items with cross-loadings of more than 0.15 difference (i.e., items not loading uniquely on one factor) can be deleted unless there is a significant theoretical support for the factor loading of the item; and (3) conceptual consistency with other items loaded on the factor.

Using the criteria detailed above, 30 items were eliminated through a series of EFA and thus, the three-factor solution with the final 29 items showed the best conceptual interpretability of factors, the patterns of the factor loadings, and similarities between items loaded on each factor. Specifically, the following items were removed using the criteria: 1) items that did not load onto any factor, 2) conceptual overlap between items (e.g., amount of resources in school vs. overall education system quality), 3) conceptual scope of the item (too broad vs. too specific), and 4) elimination by factor loadings lower than .40 or by cross-loadings of more than 0.15 difference. Although some items met the criteria for elimination, items were retained (e.g., Acceptance of LGBTQ+ identities) if there were theoretical support (Branstrom & Pachankis, 2021; Coulter et al., 2020; van der Star et al., 2021). In this process, I reran EFA with the remaining items after an item was removed one at a time because the elimination of even a single item can change the factor structure, possibly leading to resolve problems with others (Bandalos & Finney, 2019).

Table 6 shows the factor loadings of 29 items from final EFA with an oblique three-

factor structure in Study 2. The three factors of the CSS explained 62.64% of the total variance. The communality values for the three-factor solution with final 29 items were moderate to high, ranging from 0.43 to 0.80. It is worth noting that four items (Items 3, 6, 14, 16) were retained even though they did not meet the cross-loadings criterion due to theoretical support; but they need to be examined carefully in the subsequent factor analyses with independent samples, later in Study 3. After the scale items are finalized, the number of factors that were confirmed during the EFA process are named based on the common characteristics of the items belonging in the factor (Boateng et al., 2018). Compared to the theoretical predictions with four factors categorizing environmental variables into specific domains (e.g., political, economic, institutional, social), these three factors empirically derived from the EFA emphasized individual's evaluation of the domains based on their interactions (e.g., evaluation of systemic structure, discrimination/ acceptance in society, etc.). In Factor 1, the items pertained to the qualities of the larger systemic structures (e.g., government, health care system, education system, etc.) in the country. As a result, Factor 1 was named *Systemic Structures*. In Factor 2, the items were related to equality, acceptance, and discrimination. As such, the factor was named *Equality & Acceptance*. Finally, in Factor 3, the items were related to resources and the advantages of the country. Hence, Factor 3 was named *Resources & Benefits*.

Table 6. Factor Loadings of the Country Satisfaction Scale with 29 Items: Study 2

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
2. Public Education Quality	.91*	-.02	-.01
6. Overall Education Quality	.82*	-.01	-.10
49. Unbiasedness of Media	.70*	.10	-.11
23. Politicians Co-operating	.70*	.19	-.02
1. Democracy	.57*	.02	.25
17. Governments (Federal, State to City/County) Co-operating	.53*	.26	.12
50. Control of Illegal Substances	.51*	.28	.06
10. Health Care Quality	.46*	.37	.04
18. Unequal Treatment by Race	.13	.75*	-.02
14. Economic Disparity	.32	.66*	-.09
24. Police Services	.02	.63*	.25
26. Acceptance of Immigrants	-.07	.62*	.28
38. Overall Minimum Wage	.24	.61*	.11
31. Equal Opportunities for Success	-.01	.53*	.35
22. Acceptance of LGBTQ+ Identities	.00	.51*	.25
45. Amount of Crimes	.33	.50*	-.02
7. Acceptance of Minorities	.12	.49*	.32
29. Acceptance of Religion	-.09	.47*	.45
37. Employment Rate	.31	.46*	.18
53. Natural Beauty	-.02	-.30	.74*
51. Opportunities to Fulfill Civic Duties (e.g. voting, jury)	.18	-.03	.65*
42. Military Force	.04	.14	.59*
52. Amount of Natural Resources	.14	.03	.58*
43. How Safe I Feel Living in the Country	.30	-.05	.57*
55. Role in Global Economy	.22	.17	.54*
58. Diversity in Society	.21	.05	.51*
5. Freedom of Expression	.42	-.17	.45*
33. Civic Service Qualities	.42	.07	.45*
34. Ethnic Minority Community Availability	.23	.28	.44*
% of explained variance	50.15	7.80	4.68
Eigenvalue	14.54	2.26	1.36

Notes. Factor 1 = *Systemic Structures*; Factor 2 = *Equality & Acceptance*; Factor 3 = *Resources & Benefits*.

* $p < .05$

Study 3

The purpose of Study 3 was to assess and confirm the internal structure of *country satisfaction*, by using the CSS measure developed in Study 2, as well as to validate the Country Satisfaction Scale (CSS). The data analyses in Study 3 involved exploratory factor analysis (EFA II), confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), tests of reliability and validity, and

regression analysis. The reason for the additional exploratory factor analysis was to examine that the same factor structure, including the number of factors and the relationships between items and factors, identified from EFA I in Study 2 can be replicated with a different sample (Boateng et al., 2018). After then, the internal factor structure was confirmed and cross-validated using CFA in a separate sample. As noted in Chapter 3, the total sample was randomly split into halves, Sample 1 ($N = 435$) and Sample 2 ($N = 397$) in Table 3, which were used for conducting EFA II and CFA, respectively in the scale development and construct validation process. To establish reliability and validity evidence, the total sample ($N = 832$) was used to calculate reliability coefficients, interrelations with other relevant variables of interest, and mean differences by demographic variables.

Exploratory Factor Analysis II

EFA II was performed with 29 CSS items using 435 data in Sample 1. Table 7 presents the descriptive statistics of the 29 items. Although no items were detected as non-normality based on the criteria of the skewness and kurtosis statistics ($|\text{skewness}| > 2$, $|\text{kurtosis}| > 7$; West et al., 1995), the visual inspection and the normality tests showed that some items slightly deviated from a normal distribution. This was addressed using MLR in factor extraction estimation. The KMO statistic was 0.95 and the Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant, $\chi^2(406) = 7591.39$, $p < .001$, indicating that the data are appropriate for conducting EFA. Like EFA I in Study 2, assuming intercorrelations among the factors of the CSS, the same oblique rotation approach was used.

Table 7. The Descriptive Statistics of the CSS Items in EFA II: Study 3 (N = 435)

Items	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Skewness	Kurtosis
1. Democracy	4.27	1.77	-0.35	-1.02
2. Public Education Quality	3.77	1.86	0.06	-1.21
3. Freedom of Expression	4.73	1.75	-0.75	-0.53
4. Overall Education Quality	3.91	1.94	0.01	-1.28
5. Acceptance of Minorities	3.94	1.84	-0.05	-1.17
6. Health Care Quality	3.87	2.01	-0.01	-1.38
7. Economic Disparity	3.26	1.80	0.40	-0.95
8. Governments (Federal, State, to City/County) Co-operating	3.80	1.68	0.04	-1.08
9. Unequal Treatment by Race	3.23	1.84	0.42	-1.00
10. Acceptance of LGBTQ+ Identities.	4.05	1.60	-0.21	-0.84
11. Politicians Co-operating	3.49	2.02	0.21	-1.32
12. Police Services	4.19	1.91	-0.33	-1.14
13. Acceptance of Immigrants	4.05	1.71	-0.09	-1.03
14. Acceptance of Religion	4.63	1.66	-0.59	-0.44
15. Equal opportunities for Success	4.31	1.93	-0.24	-1.20
16. Civic Service Qualities	4.54	1.59	-0.60	-0.42
17. Ethnic Minority Community Availability	4.58	1.46	-0.41	-0.29
18. Employment Rate	3.94	1.76	-0.01	-1.18
19. Overall Minimum Wage	3.71	1.89	0.01	-1.24
20. Military Force	4.87	1.67	-0.65	-0.40
21. How safe I feel living in the country.	5.07	1.49	-0.78	-0.06
22. Amount of Crimes	3.66	1.64	0.24	-0.87
23. Unbiasedness of Media	3.22	1.81	0.32	-1.00
24. Control of Illegal Substances	3.63	1.74	0.09	-0.97
25. Opportunities to Fulfill Civic Duties (e.g. voting, jury)	4.79	1.46	-0.69	0.09
26. Amount of Natural Resources	4.99	1.44	-0.80	0.36
27. Natural Beauty	5.79	1.23	-1.14	1.19
28. Role in Global Economy.	4.68	1.54	-0.52	-0.24
29. Diversity in Society.	5.18	1.47	-0.98	0.73

Using the recommended criteria detailed in Study 2, Kaiser's rule, scree plot, and interpretability all clearly suggested the oblique three-factor structure to represent the CSS in Sample 1, which is consistent with the findings from EFA I in Study 2. Thus, I repeated EFAs by fixing the number of factors to three to determine the final set of the CSS items. Using the same item retention criteria from Study 2, the factor loadings of 29 items for the three-factor structure shown in Table 8 were examined. Five items (Item 10, Item 17, Item 21, Item 22, and Item 24) did not have a minimum factor loading of .40, and two items (Item 14 and Item

28) had cross-loadings of less than 0.15 difference. These items were eliminated sequentially to observe any changes in factor loadings resulting from changes in covariance matrix among the items. As a result, seven items in total were eliminated. In sum, 22 items were retained through the EFA II process.

The elimination of the aforementioned seven items was also theoretically acceptable. For example, Item 28 (Role in Global Economy) is the only item in the CSS that focuses on international perspective of the country, whereas the rest of the items focuses on domestic variables. As such, eliminating item 28 might help to maintain the consistency of the CSS variables. Furthermore, there are items within the CSS that includes the scope of the item content that the eliminated items are intended to measure (e.g., Item 14 [Acceptance of Religion] can be encompassed into Item 29 [Diversity of Society]; Item 10 [Acceptance of LGBTQ+ Identities] can be encompassed into Item 5 [Acceptance of Minorities]; Item 22 [Amount of Crimes] and Item 24 [Control of Illegal Substances] can be encompassed into Item 12 [Police Services]).

Table 8. Factor Loadings of CSS for EFA with 29 Items (N = 435)

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
2. Public Education Quality	.96*	.02	-.22
4. Overall Education Quality	.92*	.02	-.14
3. Freedom of Expression	.90*	-.46	.07
1. Democracy	.76*	-.04	.03
23. Unbiasedness of Media	.75*	-.05	-.27
8. Governments (Federal, State to City/County) Co-operating	.64*	.18	-.03
11. Politicians Co-operating	.58*	.23	-.09
16. Civic Service Qualities	.54*	.00	.18
28. Role in Global Economy.	.40*	.02	.39
9. Unequal Treatment by Race	-.05	.82*	.02
7. Economic Disparity	.14	.79*	-.06
19. Overall Minimum Wage	.04	.76*	.01
15. Equal Opportunities for Success	-.01	.72*	.30
12. Police Services	-.02	.68*	.27
5. Acceptance of Minorities	.08	.62*	.24
13. Acceptance of Immigrants	.09	.57*	.27
6. Health Care Quality	.23	.55*	.20
20. Military Force	-.05	.51*	.30
18. Employment Rate	.32	.46*	.06
10. Acceptance of LGBTQ+ Identities.	.04	.37	.24
17. Availability of Ethnic Minority Community	.18	.37	.27
27. Natural Beauty	-.12	-.02	.59*
29. Diversity in Society.	.04	.11	.52*
14. Acceptance of Religion	.00	.43	.49*
25. Opportunities to Fulfill Civic Duties (e.g. voting, jury)	.31	-.11	.49*
26. Amount of Natural Resources	.00	.32	.47*
21. How Safe I Feel Living in the Country.	.26	.18	.35
22. Amount of Crimes	.28	.29	-.02
24. Control of Illegal Substances	.34	.29	-.01
% of explained variance	42.75	6.96	6.06
Eigenvalue	12.40	2.02	1.76

* $p < .05$

Table 9 presents the final EFA results of the CSS, consisting of 22 items loaded on three factors. A three-factor structure accounted for 61.31% of the total variance, with an eigenvalue of 10.03 (45.57% of explained variance) for Factor 1 with 8 items, an eigenvalue of 1.76 (8.00% of explained variance) for Factor 2 with 10 items, and an eigenvalue of 1.70 (7.74% of explained variance) for Factor 3 with 4 items. All loadings of the items on the

associated primary factors were .44 or higher, and no items have cross-loadings of less than 0.15 difference.

Some items were loaded differently between EFA I (Study 2) and EFA II (Study 3): Item 3 (Freedom of Expression), Item 6 (Health Care Quality), Item 16 (Civic Service Qualities), and Item 20 (Military Force). In fact, Items 3, 6, and 16 had cross-loadings of less than 0.15 from the EFA I results but retained for the conceptual importance. As such, change in their primary factor between EFA I and EFA II was reasonably understandable. A potential explanation could be the close conceptual association between the factors. That is, when an item initially belongs to one factor (e.g., freedom of expression is strength/benefit of the country), the same item can be interpreted well in another domain (e.g., the systemic structure of the country enables the freedom of expression).

Examining the items and their factor loadings, the 8 items loading onto Factor 1 again were related to systemic structure (e.g., democracy, education, health care, etc.). As a result, Factor 1 was named *Systemic Structures*. The 10 items of Factor 2 pertained characteristics of equality, acceptance, and discrimination, hence retaining the name *Equality & Acceptance*. Finally, the 4 items belonging to Factor 3 again showed characteristics related to resources and advantages of the country. Therefore, Factor 3 was named *Resources & Benefits*, again. The three factors were significantly correlated to each other; Factor 1 (*Systemic Structures*) was strongly correlated with Factor 2 (*Equality & Acceptance*; $r = .68$) and moderately correlated with Factor 3 (*Resources & Benefits*; $r = .30$); however, Factor 2 (*Equality & Acceptance*) and Factor 3 (*Resources & Benefits*) had a relatively weak association, $r = .18$.

Table 9. Factor Loadings of CSS for Final EFA with 22 Items (N = 435)

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
3. Freedom of Expression	.85*	-.40	.12
2. Public Education Quality	.85*	.09	-.11
4. Overall Education Quality	.80*	.11	-.01
1. Democracy	.70*	.02	.07
23. Unbiasedness of Media	.68*	-.01	-.22
8. Governments (Federal, State, to City/County) Co-operating	.59*	.23	-.02
11. Politicians Co-operating	.54*	.27	-.09
16. Civic Service Quality	.53*	.05	.20
7. Economic Disparity	.10	.81*	-.05
9. Unequal Treatment by Race	-.04	.80*	-.01
19. Overall Minimum Wage	0	.80*	0
15. Equal Opportunities for Success	.03	.73*	.22
12. Police Services	-.03	.73*	.28
5. Acceptance of Minorities	.11	.63*	.19
6. Health Care Quality	.19	.61*	.22
13. Acceptance of Immigrants	.14	.56*	.19
20. Military Force	-.06	.56*	.28
18. Employment Rate	.29	.49*	.05
27. Natural Beauty	-.09	-.01	.61*
26. Amount of Natural Resources	.01	.36	.52*
25. Opportunities to Fulfill Civic Duties (e.g., Voting, Jury)	.32	-.06	.49*
29. Diversity in Society	.09	.14	.44*
% of explained variance	45.57	8.00	7.74
Eigenvalue	10.03	1.76	1.70

Notes. Factor 1 = *Systemic Structure*; Factor 2 = *Equality & Acceptance*; Factor 3 = *Resources & Benefits*. * $p < .05$

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

CFA was performed to further confirm the factor structure of the CSS established from EFAs and assess alternative factor structures using a separate sample, Sample 2, for cross-validation (Morin et al. 2016). I conducted CFAs using MLR in *Mplus* 7.4 to effectively address the issue of non-normality (Muthén & Muthén, 1998-2015). To evaluate a model fit, the following criteria for fit indices were considered acceptable: Comparative Fit Index (CFI) $\geq .90$; Tucker–Lewis index (TLI) $\geq .90$; root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) $\leq .08$; and standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) $\leq .08$ (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Kenny, 2015; Kline, 2015; Weston & Gore, 2006). In addition, the Akaike Information

Criterion (AIC) and Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC) were also used to compare model fits, with smaller values indicating better fitting models (Burnham & Anderson, 2004).

Hypothesized Model: Correlated Three-Factors Model

The results of the CFA indicated that the hypothesized correlated three-factor model (i.e., oblique three-factor model) showed acceptable fit statistics to the data: $\chi^2(206) = 718.26, p < .001, CFI = .88, TLI = .86, RMSEA = .079, SRMR = .064, AIC = 29675.60, BIC = 29950.49$ (See “Three-factor” in Table 10 and “(a) Model 1” in Figure 1). After adding a residual correlation between Item 2 and Item 4 that shared item wording/content (i.e., “Education Quality”), the correlated three-factor model better described the data with the improved fit statistics: $\chi^2(205) = 642.89, p < .001, CFI = .89, TLI = .88, RMSEA = .073, SRMR = .060, AIC = 29583.78, BIC = 29862.65$ (See “Three-factor w/ item cov” in Table 10). As shown in Table 10, the modified three-factor model with the correlated residuals was further supported based on the fit statistics in comparison with other alternative models examined, later. All items significantly loaded on the associated factors; standardized factor loadings were .58 to .84 for Factor 1 (*Systemic Structures*), .56 to .82 for Factor 2 (*Equality & Acceptance*), and .50 to .77 for Factor 3 (*Resources & Benefits*). Also, the three factors were strongly correlated with each other: Factor 1 and Factor 2, $r = .83$, Factor 1 and Factor 3, $r = .67$, and Factor 2 and Factor 3, $r = .64$.

Alternative Measurement Models

I also examined alternative measurement models, including a single first-order factor model, a second-order factor model with three first-order factors, and different types of bifactor models. Figure 1 illustrates the hypothesized correlated three-factor model, as well as the alternative models specified in this study. The reason for considering the alternative models such as the second-order and the bifactor models is to examine the structure of a

measure that is hypothesized to include a general or global factor given its multiple highly related domains (Chen et al., 2006; Reise, 2012; Reise et al., 2010; Yoon et al., 2015). In addition to that needs, a general factor resultant from these alternative models might be useful for reducing multicollinearity when multiple factors from the oblique three-factor model were used as predictors in structural equation models. That is, the strong correlations among the factors in the correlated-factors model might lead to unignorable bias in structural parameters, caused by multicollinearity issues (Marsh et al., 2004; Reise et al., 2010). In this regard, it would be informative to understand alternative internal structure of the CSS for various purposes of usage. Because the three-factor model already showed a sufficient fit, therefore, I tested the alternative factor structures as complementary, rather than competing models to each other.

Single-Factor Model. The first alternative model was a single factor model, where all items of the CSS observe a single latent construct (country satisfaction). This model had poor fit to the data: $\chi^2(209) = 1092.55, p < .001, CFI = .78, TLI = .76, RMSEA = 0.10, SRMR = 0.07$ (See “Single-factor” in Table 10 and “(b) Model 2” in Figure 1). It implied that the CSS of 22 items did not reflect solely a unidimensional encompassing latent construct of country satisfaction.

Second-Order Model. The next is the second-order model, known as the higher-order model, which is comprised of first-order factors that have direct effects on the associated items, and the second-order factor which represents a general latent construct that is shared across first-order factors. Statistically, the second-order model attempts to explain the correlations among first-order factors by stipulating a single second-order factor (Reise, 2012). With only three first-order factors, the correlated-factors model is empirically equivalent (i.e., same χ^2 and df) to a second-order model with one second-order factor (Kline,

2015; Reise, 2012). In second-order model of the CSS, since there are no direct relations between the second-order factor (general country satisfaction) and items, country satisfaction is indirectly represented in item scores through the three first-order factors. Due to the close relationship between item 2 (Public Education Quality) and item 4 (Overall Educational Quality) in Factor 1, the second-order model was also measured with the aforementioned item residual correlation. As expected, the model fit was equivalent to the correlational three-factors model (See “Second-order” in Table 10 and “(c) Model 3” in Figure 1). Furthermore, all first-order factors significantly loaded onto the second-order factor (.91 for *Systemic Structures*, .87 for *Equality & Acceptance*, and .62 for *Resources & Benefits*). Because the model fit was equivalent to the first-order three-factors model, which the model fit was significant, this model was selected as a complementary model, rather than competitive alternative model.

Bifactor Model. Another alternative model considered is the bifactor model (Schmid & Leiman, 1957), known as the nested-factor models, which observes a general factor that have a direct effect on each item, representing a shared latent construct across all items, as well as specific factors that explain the item unique variances not accounted for by the general factor (Eid et al., 2017; Reise, et al., 2010). One of the assumptions of the bifactor model is that the general factor and specific factors are independent of each other and each item score reflects both the influence of general factor and specific factor. Compared to the second-order model, the bifactor model has a couple of advantages: 1) the contribution of specific factors to predict an external variable can be examined independently from the general factor, which might be difficult to do with the second-order model because it is not easy to estimate relations between disturbances and external variables; 2) the measurement invariance can be tested at both general and specific factors, while only general factor can be

feasible in the second-order model; and 3) group mean differences can be studied at both general and specific factors, but the second-order model does not (see Chen et al., 2006 and Reise et al., 2010 for more details).

The bifactor model of the CSS showed a better goodness-of-fit than the correlated three-factors and the second-order models: $\chi^2(187) = 557.72, p < .001, CFI = .91, TLI = .89, RMSEA = 0.071, SRMR = 0.048, AIC = 29490.46, \text{ and } BIC = 29841.04$ (See “Bifactor” in Table 10 and “(d) Model 4” in Figure 1). Although all items significantly loaded on the general factor of country satisfaction ($ps < .001$) with standardized factor loadings ranging from .20 to .82, most factor loadings (six out of eight) on the specific factor of Factor 1 (*Systemic Structures*) were low, negative (-.09 to .26), or non-significant ($.11 < ps < .95$), and an item (Item 18) did not significantly load on the specific factor of Factor 2 (*Equality & Acceptance*). Even the variance estimates of the specific factor, Factor 1 (*Systemic Structures*), was not significantly different from zero ($p = 0.17$), as well as model modification indices implied strong evidence for the correlations among the specific factors. Such problematic results were considered as anomalous results, which were typically found in empirical applications of bifactor model, leading to challenge the intended a priori interpretation of the factors (see Eid et al., 2016; Geiser et al., 2015 for detailed discussion). Given that the specific factors in this traditional bifactor model cannot be well justified for representing the reliable subscale scores of the CSS, I applied the modified bifactor model, bifactor-($S - 1$) model, according to the recommendations of previous studies (e.g., Eid et al., 2016; Gade et al., 2017; Heinrich et al., 2020)

Bifactor-($S - 1$) Model. The bifactor-($S - 1$) model assumes the one of the underlying factors as a reference domain that reflects the general factor, and the specific factors, also called residual factors, reflect the domain specific traits that were not shared with

the general factor (i.e., reference domain). Thus, there is one specific factor less than domains (factors) considered, and this is why this model called bifactor- $(S - 1)$ model (Eid et al., 2017; Geiser et al., 2015). Through this modification, the collapsed specific factor is functioned as a reference domain for the general factor, and the general factor becomes well-defined concerning its content, specific to the reference domain items (e.g., Gade et al., 2017; Heinrich et al., 2020). Unlike the original bifactor model, specific factors can be correlated, but they were not correlated with the general factor, indicating that partial relationships between specific factors after adjusting for variance that all factors share with the reference domain factor (Eid et al., 2017). More about bifactor model and bifactor- $(S - 1)$ will be discussed in Chapter 5.

In the CSS, Factor 3 (*Resources & Benefits*) was selected as a reference domain for the general factor because the domain of *Resources & Benefits* was particularly important for other domains in that the variables belonging to *Resources & Benefits* are more conceptually associated with the operational definition of country. That is, the majority of the variables in *Resources & Benefits* are geography-dependent, which is emphasized in the definition of *country*. This bifactor- $(S - 1)$ model with *Resources & Benefits* as the reference domain showed acceptable fit to the data: $\chi^2(190) = 648.87, p < .001, CFI = 0.89, TLI = 0.87, RMSEA = 0.077, SRMR = 0.056, AIC = 29582.50, BIC = 29921.14$ (See “Bifactor- $(S - 1)$ ” in Table 10 and “(e) Model 5” in Figure 1). Although the original bifactor model reported better fit statistics, anomalous results of the specific factors in the bifactor model cause interpretation problems. Therefore, I selected the bifactor- $(S - 1)$ model as the better consideration for the alternative internal structure of the CSS. As the factors/domains considered in the CSS are not fully interchangeable, this modified bifactor model could give the general factor a clear meaning and provide less anomalous results (e.g., Bonifay et al.,

2017; Eid et al., 2018; Heinrich et al., 2020; Geiser et al., 2008). As shown in Table 11 presenting standardized factors loadings, all items were significantly loaded on the general country satisfaction factor as well as on their respective specific factors ($ps < .01$). That indicates that these two specific factors accounted for a substantial amount of item variance. Also, the two specific factors, *Systematic Structures* and *Equality & Acceptance*, were strongly correlated, $r = .63$ ($p < .001$).

Table 10. Model Fit Statistics of the Hypothesized Three-Factor Model and Alternative Models for CSS

Model	Model fit indices							
	χ^2	<i>df</i>	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	SRMR	AIC	BIC
Three-factor	718.26***	206	0.88	0.86	0.08	0.06	29675.60	29950.49
Three-factor w/ item cov^a	642.89***	205	0.89	0.88	0.07	0.06	29583.78	29862.65
Single-factor	1092.55***	209	0.78	0.76	0.10	0.07	30157.21	30420.15
Second-order	718.27***	206	0.88	0.86	0.08	0.06	29675.60	29950.49
Second-order w/ item cov^a	642.88***	205	0.89	0.88	0.07	0.06	29583.78	29862.65
Bifactor	557.72***	187	0.91	0.89	0.07	0.05	29490.46	29841.04
Bifactor-(S-1)	638.87***	190	0.89	0.87	0.08	0.06	29582.50	29921.14

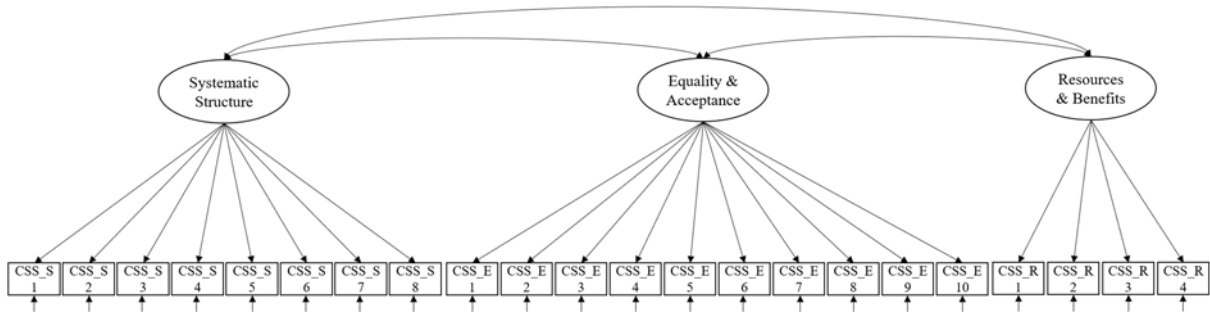
^a The residual correlation between Item 2 and Item 4 was added to the model for improving the model fit, considering the similar item content (i.e., education).

Notes. χ^2 = scaling correction factor; CFI = comparative fit index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis index; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; SRMR = standardized root mean residual; AIC = Akaike information criterion; BIC = Bayesian information criterion.

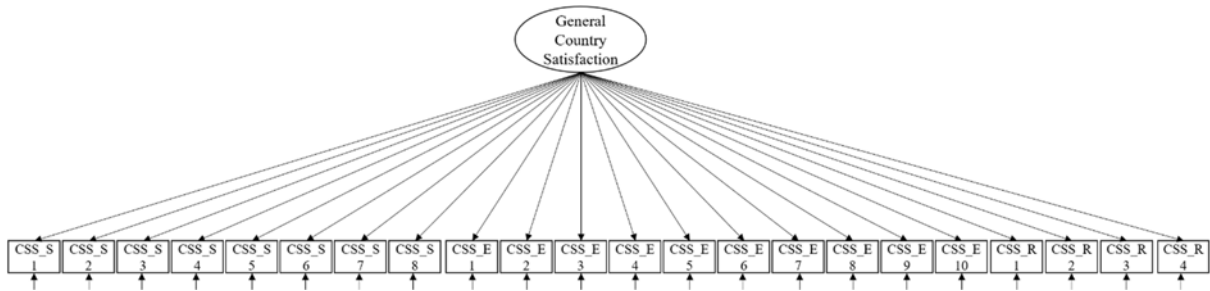
*** $p < .001$

Figure 1. The hypothesized and alternative factor models for CSS

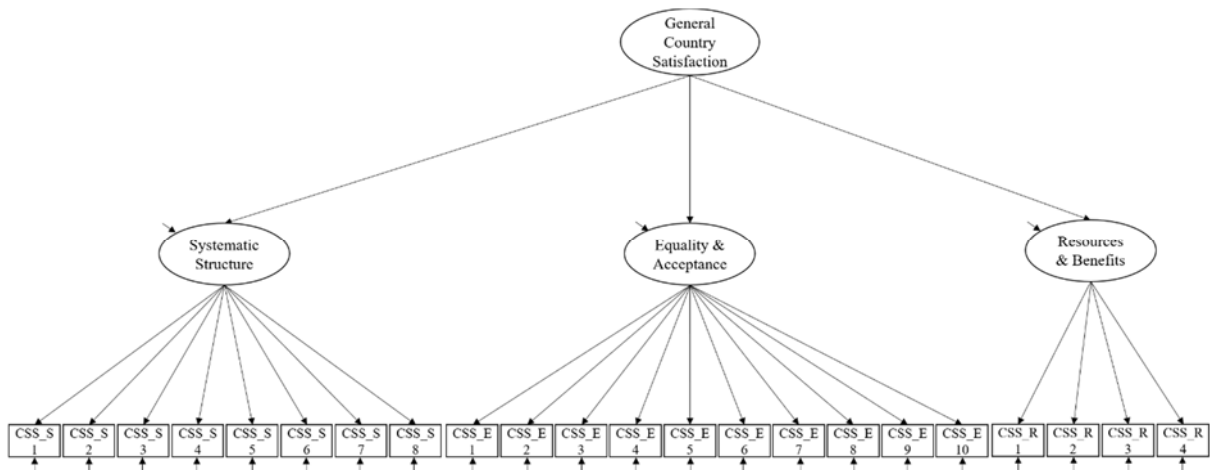
(a) Model 1: Three-factor model (Hypothesized model)



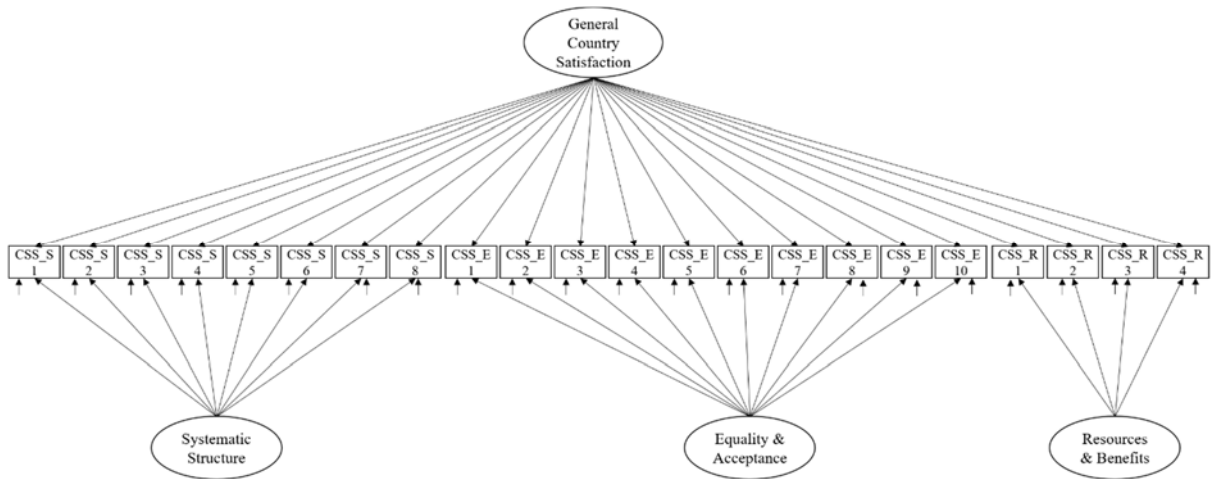
(b) Model 2: Single-factor model



(c) Model 3: One second-order factor model with three first-order factors



(d) Model 4: Bifactor model



(e) Model 5: Bifactor-($S - 1$) model

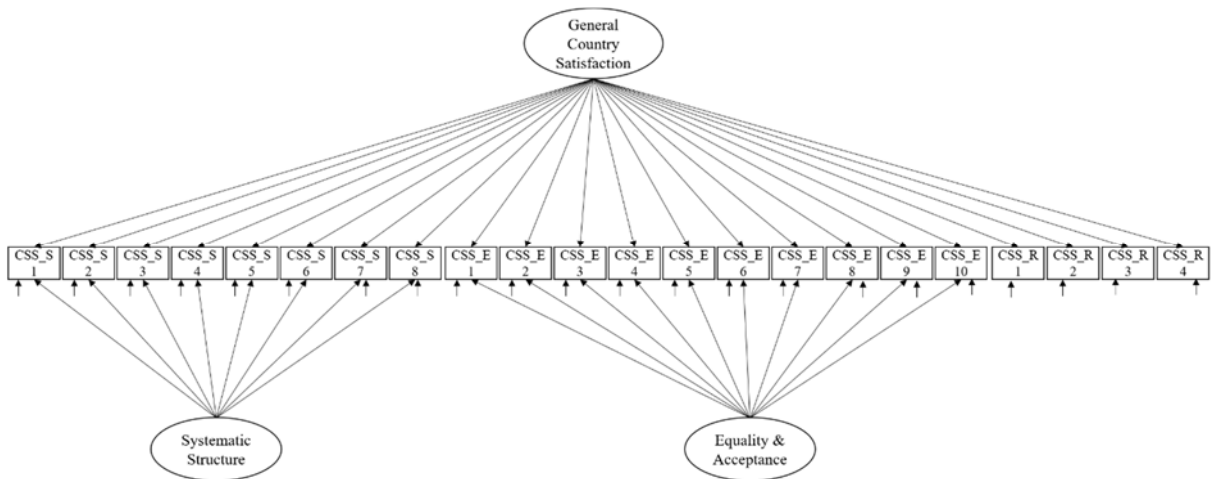


Table 11. CFA Standardized Factor Loadings of the Final CSS for Three-factor and Bifactor-(S-1) Models

	Correlated First-Order Three-Factor Model/Second-Order Three-Factor Model			Bifactor-(S-1) Model		
	Systematic Structure	Equality & Acceptance	Resources & Benefits	General CSS	Systematic Structure	Equality & Acceptance
Item 1	.73			.54	.48	
Item 2	.84 ^{cov}			.53	.75	
Item 3	.59			.43	.41 ^{ri}	
Item 4	.81 ^{cov}			.46	.81	
Item 5		.78		.55		.55
Item 6		.79		.57		.55
Item 7		.82		.52		.63 ^{ri}
Item 8	.78			.61	.41	
Item 9		.75		.44		.62
Item 10	.75			.56	.44	
Item 11		.76		.49		.58
Item 12		.71		.60		.39
Item 13		.78		.62		.48
Item 14	.58			.59	.22	
Item 15		.71		.54		.46
Item 16		.75		.41		.67
Item 17		.56		.43		.36
Item 18	.65			.43	.46	
Item 19			.60	.62		
Item 20			.77	.67		
Item 21			.49	.45 ^{ri}		
Item 22			.59	.59		

^{ri} This item is the reference item for the corresponding factor.

^{cov} These items' residuals were correlated.

Reliability

Sample 1 ($N = 435$) and Sample 2 ($N = 397$) in the Study 3 data collection were combined into a total full sample ($N = 802$) to examine the reliability and the validity of the CSS. Based on the correlated three-factors model with the item residual correlation, composite reliability, or coefficient omega (ω), for the CSS with 22 items was .94. At the subscale level, coefficient omega subscale (ω_s) was .86 for *Systemic Structures* with eight items, .93 for *Equality & Acceptance* with 10 items, and .64 for *Resources & Benefits* with 4 items. In addition, the composite reliability (ω) of the overall CSS score estimated from the second-order factor model with the item residual correlation (Raykov & Marcoulides, 2012),

was .95.

For the bifactor-($S-1$) model, guided by prior research that studied the bifactor model (e.g., Eid et al., 2017; Reise, 2012; Reise et al., 2013; Rodriguez et al., 2016), not only coefficient omega (ω) but also coefficient omega subscale (ω_S), coefficient omega hierarchical (ω_H), and coefficient omega hierarchical subscale (ω_{HS}) were calculated to assess how much the general and specific factors could explain variance. Coefficient omega ω for the CSS total score was .95, estimating the proportion of variance in the observed scores attributable to all sources of common variance (i.e., the general factor and the specific factors). With the same logic, coefficient omega subscale ω_S was .90 for *Systemic Structures* and .93 for *Equality & Acceptance*.

Taking advantage of the independence of general and specific factors in a bifactor structure including the bifactor-($S - 1$) model, coefficient omega hierarchical (ω_H) and hierarchical subscales (ω_{HS}) were also computed (McDonald, 1999; Reise et al., 2013; Rodriguez et al., 2016; Zinbarg et al., 2005) for examining a unique contribution of a general factor and specific factors, respectively. Omega hierarchical helps to judge the degree to which composite or subscale scores can be interpretable as a measure of a factor (Reise, 2012). Coefficient omega hierarchical ω_H for the general country satisfaction factor was .56, suggesting that 56% of the variance of the total scores was explained by the individual differences on the general factor, and about 39% ($= .95 - .56$) of the reliable variance could be attributed to the specific factors. When ω_H is high, composite scores predominantly reflect a single common source even the data are multidimensional (Reise, 2012), which was not for the CSS given $\omega_H = .56$.

Lastly, coefficient omega hierarchical subscale (ω_{HS}) was .48 for *Systemic Structures* and .53 for *Equality & Acceptance*, indicating the reliability of a subscale score after

adjusting for the variance due to the general factor. It is important to note that compared to the original omega coefficients for the subscales (.90, .93), the omega hierarchical subscale reliability estimates (.48, .53) were considerably reduced after controlling for the general factor. This is expected given that after partitioning out the variance for the general factor, a little common variance remains for the specific factors and that the items tend to load larger on the general factor than specific factors (see Table 11; Rodriguez et al., 2016). However, ω_{HS} was not really limited, indicating that reliable variances for the subscales exist beyond those due to the general factor. Overall, omega reliability coefficients and factor loadings provide sufficient evidence for justifying the use of the reliable general factor as well as the reliable two specific factors of the CSS.

Construct Validity – Convergent validity

As a next step of scale development, I investigated construct validity of the three-factor structure model, second-order model and the bifactor- $(S - 1)$ model. Construct validity, the degree the scale measure what it is supposed to be measuring (Cronbach, 1955; Raykov & Marcoulides, 2011), was examined by correlating the latent general and specific factor scores of CSS with manifest scale scores of other relevant constructs. Table 12, 13, and 14 displays the correlations of general and specific factor scores from the three-factor structure, second-order model and the bifactor- $(S - 1)$ model with social well-being. Regarding social well-being, measuring convergent validity, the three factors in the CSS all had positive correlations with social integration ($r_S = .61$, $r_E = .45$, $r_R = .41$), while only *Systemic Structures* and *Equality & Acceptance* reporting positive correlations with social actualization ($r_S = .25$, $r_E = .38$). *Resources & Benefits* did not report significant correlation. In second-order factor structure model, General Country Satisfaction showed positive correlations with social integration and social actualization ($.34 < r_S < .61$). In the Bifactor- $(S-1)$ model, the

specific factors of CSS were positively correlated with social integration ($.22 < r_s < .41$) and social actualization ($.36 < r_s < .51$). The general factor was positively correlated only to social integration ($r = .46$) and did not have significant correlations with social actualization. Taken together, the pattern of correlations for the general and specific factors was found in a direction mostly as expected with social well-being, which provides some evidence of supporting the convergent validity of the CSS three-factor model, second-order factor and the bifactor- $(S - 1)$ model.

Construct Validity – Discriminant validity

In examining the construct validity of the measure, discriminant validity, examining the relationship between measures that theoretically should not be related to each other (Boateng et al., 2018), is also an integral process. To measure the discriminant validity of all potential model of the CSS, patriotism was selected. Table 12, 13, and 14 shows the correlations of general and specific factor scores from the three-factor structure, second-order model and the bifactor- $(S - 1)$ model with patriotism. In the three-factor structure model, *System Structures* had positive correlations with blind patriotism ($r = .72$), but no significant correlation with constructive patriotism ($r = -.01$). *Equality & Acceptance* had positive correlations with blind patriotism ($r = .72$) but weak negative correlations with constructive patriotism ($r = -.09$). Finally, *Resources & Benefits* had positive correlations with both blind ($r = .48$) and constructive patriotism ($r = .40$). In second-order factor structure model, *general country satisfaction* had strong positive correlations with blind patriotism ($r = .84$) while no significant correlation with constructive patriotism were observed ($r = -.05$). In bifactor- $(S-1)$ model, the results showed that the CSS's specific factors of *System Structures* and *Equality & Acceptance* had positive correlations with blind patriotism ($.58 < r_s < .69$) but negative correlations with constructive patriotism ($-.37 < r_s < -.30$). The general factor of CSS had a

positive and stronger association with blind patriotism ($r = .44$) than with constructive patriotism ($r = .35$). In short, the results showed that some facets of country satisfaction was not related to constructive patriotism, but all facets of country satisfaction was related to blind patriotism.

Table 12. Correlations of Scores from Country Satisfaction Scale with Patriotism and Social Well-Being Measures for Three-Factor Structure (N = 802)

	Patriotism		Social Well-Being	
	Blind Patriotism	Constructive Patriotism	Social Integration	Social Actualization
Country Satisfaction				
Systemic Structure	.72***	-.01	.61***	.25***
Equality & Acceptance	.82***	-.09**	.45***	.38***
Resources & Benefits	.48***	.40***	.41***	.09

** $p < .005$; *** $p < .001$

Table 13. Correlations of Scores from Country Satisfaction Scale with Patriotism and Social Well-Being Measures for Second-Order Three-Factor Structure (N = 802)

	Patriotism		Social Well-Being	
	Blind Patriotism	Constructive Patriotism	Social Integration	Social Actualization
Country Satisfaction				
General Country Satisfaction	.84***	-.05	.61***	.34***

** $p < .005$; *** $p < .001$

Table 14. Correlations of General and Specific Scores from Country Satisfaction Scale with Patriotism and Social Well-Being Measures for the Bifactor-(S-1) model (N = 802)

	Patriotism		Social Well-Being	
	Blind Patriotism	Constructive Patriotism	Social Integration	Social Actualization
Country Satisfaction				
General Factor (G)	.44***	.35***	.46***	-.03
Systemic Structure	.58***	-.30***	.41***	.36***
Equality & Acceptance	.69***	-.37***	.22***	.51***

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

Criterion Validity

Another scale validation procedure is to examine criterion validity: the extent a measure predicts an outcome for another criterion measure (Dodge, 2008; Vogt & Johnson,

2011). To examine the criterion validity of the CSS, this study hypothesized that country satisfaction and life satisfaction are related, based on evidence that “country-level” variables significantly influence life satisfaction (Bjornskov et al., 2008; Koots-Ausmees & Realo, 2015; Obydenkova & Salahodjaev, 2017). There are two types of criterion validity: 1) predictive validity, the extent a measure predicts answers to another measure (Boateng et al., 2018), and 2) concurrent validity, the extent a measure correlates with another measure that is considered as the gold standard (Raykov & Marcoulides, 2011). However, concurrent validity is often more challenging to measure because there may not be a “gold standard” measure for the criterion and is more vulnerable to sampling errors (Boateng et al., 2018). Therefore, only predictive validity of the CSS was examined using *Life Satisfaction Scale*. The Pearson correlation coefficients in the three-factor structure model showed that individual life satisfaction has a moderate association with all of *Systemic Structures* ($r = .52, p < .001$), *Equality & Acceptance* ($r = .56, p < .001$) and *Resources & Benefits* ($r = .49, p < .001$). In second-order factor model, the correlation coefficients showed that individual life satisfaction has a strong association with the general country satisfaction ($r = .62, p < .001$). The correlation coefficients in the bifactor-($S-1$) model showed that individual life satisfaction has a moderate association with the general factor of CSS ($r = .54, p < .001$) but a relatively weak association with the specific factors of *Systemic Structures* ($r = .23, p < .001$) and *Equality & Acceptance* ($r = .28, p < .001$).

Known-Groups Validity

As another evidence for the construct validity of the CSS with the three-factor structure, second-order structure, and the bifactor-($S - 1$) structure, known-groups validity was further investigated. To do this, I obtained the factor scores estimated from each model

for the subsequent analyses considered, here. It is worth noting that factor score determinacy estimates (Grice, 2001) were .95 for *Systemic Structures*, .97 for *Equality & Acceptance*, and .87 for *Resources & Benefits*; .93 for second-order general country satisfaction; .88 for the General factor and .89 and .88 for the specific factors of *Systemic Structures* and *Equality & Acceptance*, respectively. Thus, it suggested that the factor scores estimated from the three-factor model, second-order factor and the bifactor- $(S - 1)$ model of CSS in the full sample well represent the true factor scores, providing support for valid factor scores. To ensure that the group differences are observed in the CSS scores, ANCOVA and MANCOVA with the scores of SWLS was performed by demographic information (gender, ethnicity, legal status, socioeconomic status [SES], sexual orientation, geographical region, community, education level). The reason to include life satisfaction as a covariate in the data analysis is to minimize confounding interpretations. Table 15 presents the scale means and standard deviations by demographic variables for both models. Here, I will discuss the results of the data analysis by factor structure.

In three-factor structure model, MANCOVA with Bonferroni post-hoc tests were performed. Box's test of normality and homogeneity of variance-covariance showed that none of the demographic variables met the assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance-covariance. As a result, the following results are to be interpreted with caution. The data analysis showed that there was a statistically significant difference between gender groups on country satisfaction after controlling for life satisfaction, $F(9, 1932.53) = 5.42, p < .001$, Wilks' $\Lambda = .94$, partial $\eta^2 = .02$. The post hoc tests showed that there was a significant difference in scores between males and females in all factors of the CSS. Furthermore, there was a significant difference of scores between males and non-binary individuals. By ethnicity, statistically significant difference between groups on country satisfaction after

controlling for life satisfaction was found, $F(21, 2269) = 3.03, p < .001$, Wilks' $\Lambda = .92$, partial $\eta^2 = .03$. A noteworthy post-hoc test results was the significant difference between African American/Black and Multiracial individuals in *Systemic Structures*. In legal status, no significant group difference was found after controlling for life satisfaction, $F(9, 1932.54) = 1.43, ns$, Wilks' $\Lambda = .98$, partial $\eta^2 = .01$. For SES, significant group difference was found after controlling for life satisfaction, $F(12, 2098) = 2.47, p < .005$, Wilks' $\Lambda = .96$, partial $\eta^2 = .01$, where the post-hoc test showed significant group difference between lower middle class and middle class, and lower middle class and upper middle class in both *Systemic Structures* and *Equality & Acceptance*. Significant difference was also found in sexual orientation, $F(12, 2098) = 2.43, p < .005$, Wilks' $\Lambda = .96$, partial $\eta^2 = .01$. However, post-hoc test did not find any significant differences among groups. With region, there was a significant group difference in country satisfaction after controlling for life satisfaction, $F(15, 2187) = 2.32, p < .005$, Wilks' $\Lambda = .96$, partial $\eta^2 = .01$. Post-hoc tests showed that there was a significant difference between Northeast U.S. and Southeast U.S., and between Northeast U.S. and Midwest U.S. in *Systemic Structures*. In terms of community level, significant group difference in country satisfaction was also found after controlling for life satisfaction, $F(6, 1590) = 11.41, p < .001$, Wilks' $\Lambda = .92$, partial $\eta^2 = .04$, and the post-hoc tests showed that significant differences of country satisfaction was found between urban-suburban community and urban-rural community in *Systemic Structures* and *Equality & Acceptance*. Finally, significant group difference in country satisfaction was found by education level, $F(15, 2187) = 3.49, p < .001$, Wilks' $\Lambda = .94$, partial $\eta^2 = .02$. Post-hoc tests also showed a difference between high school diploma and associate degree, and between high school diploma and bachelor's degree in *Systemic Structures* and *Equality & Acceptance*.

In second-order model, general country satisfaction as a second-order factor was

examined by demographic variables through ANCOVA and Bonferroni post-hoc tests were performed. Levene's test of homogeneity showed that the assumption was not met with legal status and education level. The rest of demographic variables met the assumptions of homogeneity of variance. The ANCOVA analysis showed that there was a significant difference between genders, $F(3, 796) = 11.69, p < .001$. Post-hoc analysis of gender showed significant difference between males and females ($p < .001$) and between males and non-binary individuals ($p < .05$). By ethnicity, there was a significant difference of scores, $F(7, 792) = 2.61, p < .05$. Significant difference of country satisfaction was also found in SES, $F(4, 795) = 5.92, p < .001$, and the post-hoc analysis showed a significant difference between lower middle class-middle class ($p = .001$) and lower middle class-upper middle class groups ($p < .001$). In sexual orientation, significant group difference was also found, $F(4, 795) = 2.64, p < .05$, but no significant difference found between specific groups. Significant group difference was also found by region, $F(5, 794) = 2.63, p < .05$, with significant difference between Northeast U.S. and Southeast U.S. Finally, significant group difference was found by community level, $F(2, 797) = 19.35, p < .001$, and significant group difference was not found only between suburban community and rural community.

Finally, for bifactor-($S-1$) model, because there are multiple factors (G factor and specific factors), MANCOVA with Bonferroni post-hoc analysis was performed. Box's test of normality and homogeneity of variance-covariance showed that only legal status, SES, and region met the assumption. Therefore, I am only reporting the analyses results of the aforementioned variables. The MANCOVA analysis of legal status reported non-significant difference between groups, $F(9, 1932) = 1.49, ns$, Wilks' $\Lambda = .98$, partial $\eta^2 = .01$. With SES, significant group difference was found, $F(12, 2098) = 2.32, p = .001$, Wilks' $\Lambda = .96$, partial $\eta^2 = .01$, with similar post-hoc results observed in other models. Finally, there was a

significant difference by region, $F(15, 2187) = 1.75, p < .005$, Wilks' $\Lambda = .97$, partial $\eta^2 = .01$.

The Bonferroni post-hoc analysis did not find any significant differences between the groups divided by region.

Table 15. Country Satisfaction Scale Means and Standard Deviations by Demographic Variables (N = 802)

Variable	Level	<i>M (SD)</i> Three-factor w/cov		<i>M (SD)</i> Second-order w/cov			<i>M (SD)</i> Bifactor-(S-1)	
		<i>F_S</i>	<i>F_E</i>	<i>F_R</i>	<i>F_G</i>	<i>F_G</i>	<i>F_S</i>	<i>F_E</i>
Gender	Male (<i>n</i> = 410)	.15 (.98)	.12 (.81)	.19 (.96)	.18 (.93)	.06 (.45)	.07 (.55)	.18 (1.00)
	Female (<i>n</i> = 383)	-.15 (.90)	-.13 (.90)	-.19 (.94)	-.17 (.90)	-.06 (.51)	-.06 (.49)	-.17 (.92)
	Non-Binary (<i>n</i> = 8)	-.64 (.47)	.03 (1.15)	-.83 (.62)	-.70 (.56)	-.06 (.48)	-.47 (.46)	-1.10 (1.02)
	Transgender (<i>n</i> = 1)	-1.58	-2.35	-1.72	-1.80	-1.44	.16	.02
Ethnicity	White (<i>n</i> = 496)	-.18 (.96)	.04 (.98)	.04 (.86)	.02 (.93)	.01 (.47)	-.02 (.54)	.03 (1.02)
	Asian/Asian American (<i>n</i> = 118)	.05 (.89)	-.05 (.87)	.03 (.79)	-.01 (.86)	.01 (.47)	.05 (.48)	-.09 (.84)
	Black/African American (<i>n</i> = 111)	.27 (1.00)	.11 (1.06)	0 (.95)	.15 (1.03)	.04 (.52)	.13 (.48)	.07 (1.01)
	Hispanic Origin (<i>n</i> = 40)	-.28 (.71)	-.29 (.77)	-.41 (.80)	-.31 (.72)	-.16 (.46)	-.10 (.51)	-.16 (.78)
	American Indian/Alaska Native (<i>n</i> = 9)	.53 (1.10)	.43 (1.09)	.12 (1.28)	.44 (1.14)	.14 (.72)	.25 (.42)	.37 (.76)
	Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander (<i>n</i> = 2)	-.64 (.04)	-.05 (1.16)	-.10 (.76)	-.26 (.77)	-.09 (.43)	-.53 (.28)	.07 (.95)
	Multiracial (<i>n</i> = 23)	-.65 (.69)	-.50 (.84)	-.31 (.93)	-.55 (.76)	-.19 (.46)	-.35 (.48)	-.41 (.89)
	Other (<i>n</i> = 3)	-1.44 (.04)	-1.37 (.50)	-1.03 (.47)	-1.40 (.33)	-.64 (.10)	-.63 (.08)	-.88 (.90)

Table 15 (cont'd)

Variable	Level	<i>M (SD)</i> Three-factor w/cov		<i>M (SD)</i> Second-order w/cov			<i>M (SD)</i> Bifactor-(S-1)	
		<i>F_S</i>	<i>F_E</i>	<i>F_R</i>	<i>F_G</i>	<i>F_G</i>	<i>F_S</i>	<i>F_E</i>
Legal Status	U.S. Citizen (<i>n</i> = 748)	-.02 (.96)	-.02 (.98)	-.02 (.87)	-.02 (.94)	-.01 (.49)	-.01 (.53)	-.01 (.99)
	U.S. Resident (Green Card) (<i>n</i> = 42)	.28 (.78)	.23 (.78)	.33 (.79)	.27 (.75)	.17 (.41)	.09 (.48)	.03 (.84)
	Non-Resident Alien (Work Visa/OPT) (<i>n</i> = 8)	.45 (1.09)	.50 (.93)	.41 (.57)	.49 (.89)	.16 (.41)	.26 (.74)	.49 (.85)
	International Student/Dependent (<i>n</i> = 4)	.30 (.51)	-.13 (.75)	.07 (.90)	.03 (.64)	-.04 (.42)	.28 (.34)	-.14 (.99)
SES	Lower Class (<i>n</i> = 74)	-.55 (.87)	-.55 (.91)	-.38 (.99)	-.55 (.87)	-.22 (.52)	-.23 (.54)	-.42 (.96)
	Lower Middle Class (<i>n</i> = 194)	.42 (.77)	-.45 (.81)	-.29 (.85)	-.44 (.76)	-.16 (.47)	-.19 (.45)	-.38 (.83)
	Middle Class (<i>n</i> = 400)	.16 (.92)	.17 (.93)	.10 (.83)	.17 (.89)	.06 (.46)	.07 (.51)	.15 (.96)
	Upper Middle Class (<i>n</i> = 129)	.41 (.99)	.44 (.97)	.33 (.76)	.43 (.93)	.17 (.45)	.18 (.55)	.36 (.99)
	Upper Class (<i>n</i> = 5)	.75 (.87)	.52 (1.16)	.38 (.98)	.60 (1.05)	.29 (.51)	.24 (.41)	.24 (1.22)

Table 15 (cont'd)

Variable	Level	<i>M (SD)</i> Three-factor w/cov		<i>M (SD)</i> Second-order w/cov			<i>M (SD)</i> Bifactor-(S-1)	
		F_S	F_E	F_R	F_G	F_G	F_S	F_E
Sexual Orientation	Heterosexual ($n = 683$)	.03 (.92)	0.48 (.92)	.03 (.86)	.04 (.89)	.02 (.47)	.01 (.52)	.04 (.95)
	Bisexual ($n = 86$)	.04 (1.16)	-.08 (1.25)	-.08 (.96)	-.04 (1.20)	-.05 (.54)	.04 (.56)	-.03 (1.17)
	Gay/Lesbian ($n = 12$)	-.67 (.76)	-.74 (.78)	-.22 (.63)	-.68 (.73)	-.19 (.35)	-.35 (.47)	-.75 (.93)
	Asexual ($n = 10$)	-.55 (.71)	-.76 (.61)	-.60 (.72)	-.69 (.62)	-.35 (.38)	-.15 (.52)	-.49 (.69)
	Other ($n = 4$)	-.79 (1.03)	-1.03 (1.19)	-1.30 (1.07)	-1.01 (1.14)	-.62 (.50)	-.04 (.41)	-.43 (.99)
Region	Northeast U.S. ($n = 212$)	.19 (.97)	.14 (1.02)	.10 (.84)	.16 (.97)	.06 (.47)	.09 (.52)	.10 (1.03)
	Southeast U.S. ($n = 203$)	-.07 (.98)	-.08 (1.00)	-.08 (.96)	-.08 (.98)	-.04 (.52)	-.02 (.51)	-.06 (.99)
	Midwest U.S. ($n = 170$)	-.07 (.96)	.05 (.93)	.01 (.88)	.01 (.90)	-.01 (.47)	-.02 (.56)	.10 (1.01)
	Southwest U.S. ($n = 82$)	-.01 (.93)	-.08 (.94)	-.05 (.82)	-.06 (.91)	0 (.44)	-.04 (.55)	-.14 (1.00)
	West U.S. ($n = 125$)	-.07 (.86)	-.07 (.87)	-.01 (.81)	-.06 (.84)	-.02 (.48)	-.03 (.49)	-.06 (.78)
	Hawaii/Alaska ($n = 10$)	-.62 (.71)	-.54 (.86)	0 (.43)	-.53 (.71)	-.05 (.32)	-.47 (.39)	-.70 (1.05)

Table 15 (cont'd)

Variable	Level	<i>M (SD)</i> Three-factor w/cov		<i>M (SD)</i> Second-order w/cov			<i>M (SD)</i> Bifactor-(S-1)	
		F_S	F_E	F_R	F_G	F_G	F_S	F_E
Community	Urban ($n = 317$)	.36 (.96)	.29 (1.00)	.16 (.85)	.31 (.97)	.09 (.47)	.18 (.50)	.26 (.97)
	Suburban ($n = 371$)	-.19 (.88)	-.15 (.90)	-.09 (.86)	-.16 (.86)	-.04 (.48)	-.11 (.52)	-.15 (.93)
	Rural ($n = 114$)	-.38 (.84)	-.30 (.91)	-.15 (.90)	-.32 (.85)	-.11 (.47)	-.15 (.49)	-.22 (1.01)
Education Level	High School ($n = 128$)	-.57 (.77)	-.51 (.77)	-.34 (.87)	-.53 (.74)	-.18 (.48)	-.30 (.46)	-.44 (.79)
	Associate Degree ($n = 98$)	-.29 (.79)	-.15 (.81)	-.23 (.83)	-.21 (.76)	-.11 (.49)	-.13 (.50)	-.04 (.95)
	Bachelor's Degree ($n = 398$)	.19 (.94)	.14 (1.00)	.10 (.83)	.16 (.95)	.05 (.46)	.10 (.50)	.12 (.98)
	Master's Degree ($n = 150$)	.24 (1.02)	.24 (1.00)	.22 (.88)	.25 (.98)	.11 (.49)	.08 (.57)	.16 (1.03)
	Doctoral Degree ($n = 19$)	-.21 (.71)	-.28 (.67)	-.09 (1.01)	-.24 (.64)	-.12 (.45)	.06 (.46)	-.19 (.96)
	Other ($n = 9$)	-.59 (.28)	-.85 (.49)	-.60 (.81)	-.76 (.39)	-.19 (.33)	-.34 (.26)	-.92 (.59)

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to develop a scale that measures country satisfaction. Country satisfaction is defined as a range of positive/negative emotions an individual experiences about the country they live in. The importance to measure country satisfaction has increased with the surge of nation-wide events that provided evidence that these events influence people's mental health. Although country satisfaction has been introduced as a psychological construct since the 1960s (Cantril, 1965), the methods to measure country satisfaction has been inconsistent. It has been measured largely in two ways: 1) directly asking country satisfaction with a single question (Morrison et al., 2011; Moyano-Diaz & Palomo-Velez, 2018), or 2) using a number of environmental variables that are considered as important "country-level" variables to personal wellbeing and measure their influences on individuals (Bjornskov et al., 2008; Heukamp & Arino, 2011; Nonnenmacher & Friedrichs, 2013). Therefore, this study attempted to develop a measure that enables researchers to directly examine country satisfaction through multiple domains based on previous research.

This study followed the established scale development procedure and followed each step accordingly (Hinkin et al., 1997). Based on previous research that have categorized "country-level" variables, this study initially predicted four factors (political, institutional, economic, and social variables) within country satisfaction. Furthermore, this study also predicted that country satisfaction would have significant relationship with life satisfaction and would have difference in scores based on different demographic identities, such as gender, ethnicity, legal status, SES, sexual orientation, region, community, and education

level. The first exploratory factor analysis established the 29-item structure of the CSS with three factors: *Systemic Structures*, *Equality & Acceptance*, and *Resources & Benefits*, rejecting the original hypothesis of four factors. The factor analysis with a larger sample in Study 3 confirmed 22-item scale with three factors: *Systemic Structures*, *Equality & Acceptance*, and *Resources & Benefits*. One modification was made to add a residual correlation between the items representing education quality. The naming of the three factor structures of the CSS is supported by not only previous research but also by our general understanding of a country. The factor *Systemic Structures* is defined as individual's evaluation of the performance of the larger systemic structures (e.g., government, health care system, education system, etc.) within the country. Qualities of the systemic structure are often assessed directly or indirectly in individual's daily functioning. For example, we often see certain news platforms reflecting certain political ideologies in delivering the news. Through the news, we evaluate the governments and politicians' performance. This in turn could bring us distress. As such, the individual's evaluation of the quality of the systems influences how we feel. This is also supported in research findings (Hendriks & Bartram, 2016; Li & An, 2020; Ngoo et al., 2015; Nunez-Barriopedro et al., 2019; Sulemana et al., 2017). In particular, one of the most researched topics in the relationship between systemic structures and individual's satisfaction is corruption. Corruption has been one of the key indicators of quality of systemic structures, such as government, and research has shown that corruption in systemic structures negatively influence individual's happiness (Eicher et al., 2009; Li & An, 2020; Wu & Zhu, 2016). Therefore, having *Systemic Structures* within the CSS is supported.

In *Equality & Acceptance*, the items were related to equality, acceptance, and discrimination within a country. The impact of perceived equality, acceptance, and

discrimination has been particularly visible in the year 2020 and 2021 in the United States. During the year 2020 and 2021, the United States was faced with multiple incidents, such as the death of George Floyd, Breonna Taylor, and the victims of the Atlanta shooting that targeted AAPI women, where individuals with certain identities were discriminated and attacked. It was apparent in how such incidents impacted the mental health of not only the individuals holding the same identities as the victims, but also the general U.S. population. In addition to the real-life events, research has also supported the influence of equality and discrimination from the larger society influencing individual's mental health and happiness (Alesina et al., 2004; Ferrer-i-Carbonell & Ramos, 2014; Graham & Felton, 2006; Murali & Oyeboode, 2004). In sum, items pertaining to individual's perceptions of equality, discrimination, and acceptance in country satisfaction is supported. Finally, in *Resources & Benefits*, the items were related to resources and the advantages of the country. Again, this seems apparent that an individual is likely to feel more satisfied with the country if they perceive the country to have more resources and benefits available. However, research findings show that this is not always the case. While there is a significant relationship between resources within a country (e.g., natural resources) and well-being, it is possible that the abundance of natural resources could lead to inequality in income, which in turn negatively influence individual's well-being (Leamer & Thornberg, 2000). Therefore, while this study adds additional support on the relationship between resources and well-being, there may be additional factors such as experiences of inequality that could change the direction of the relationship.

In addition to the modified three-factor model, this study also examined alternative measurement models of the CSS and found that both the second-order three-factor model (the three factors are under a larger *General* country satisfaction) and the bifactor-(S-1) model

(taking *Resources & Benefits* as a reference of the General (*G*) Factor and two specific domains of *Systemic Structures* and *Equality & Acceptance*) provided a significant model fit. As mentioned in the Results section, the reason for considering the alternative models is to examine the structure of a measure that is hypothesized to include a general or global factor consisting of multiple highly related domains (Chen et al., 2006; Reise et al., 2010; Reise, 2012; Yoon et al., 2015). Considering how country satisfaction was measured in previous research, with directly assessing country satisfaction and including select economic variables to measure well-being (Morrison et al., 2011; Moyano-Diaz & Palomo-Velez, 2018), examining alternative structure with general factor was required. The results showed that the second-order three-factor structure with general country satisfaction and a modified version of the bifactor modeling of the CSS also provided an acceptable fit. Because none of the factor models have strong empirical support, the second-order structure and bifactor-(*S*-1) model were adopted as complementary models, instead having the alternative models as competing models. Here, I am going to explain more about the bifactor modeling, and the bifactor-(*S*-1) model.

Bifactor modeling (Holzinger & Swineford, 1937), also referred to as nested factor modeling, is used when the hypothesized factor structure shows overlapping dimensions (Reise et al., 2007). Bifactor modeling is best used when different domains are assessed by multiple variables (Eid et al., 2017). The bifactor model assumes a unidimensional construct with multiple internal dimensions and assumes that each item loads onto both the latent unidimensional construct and the subscale (Morin et al., 2016; Reise et al., 2010). That is, in a bifactor model, there is a general factor (*G*) that is hypothesized to influence all variables, group factors, which are equivalent to the domains observed in factor structures, and residual variables for each domain (Eid et al., 2017; Eid et al., 2018). In bifactor modeling, the

specific factors are assumed to be uncorrelated with all other specific factors as well as with the general factor. The residual variables are also assumed to be uncorrelated with each other, the general factor, and the domains (Eid et al., 2017).

Based on the assumptions of the bifactor modeling, initially, it does not seem like a suitable analysis method to examine the factor structure of the CSS. The correlations between the factors identified in exploratory factor analysis also alluded to high levels of correlations among the factors, which could violate the assumptions of the bifactor modeling. Based on the empirical findings of non-zero correlations between specific factors, some researchers have proposed bifactor models that allows the domains to be correlated (e.g., Brunner et al., 2012; Levant et al., 2013). However, in this case, the *G*-factor, which is already the shared variance, becomes theoretically challenging to explain its purpose. In order to resolve this issue, some researchers have transferred theories of item response theory (IRT) into classical testing theory (CTT; Eid et al., 2017; Steyer, 1989, Steyer & Eid, 2001), and suggested the bifactor-(*S*-1) model, which is the model that explained the structure of CSS best.

The bifactor-(*S*-1) model selects one of the domains as a reference domain and the domains that have not been selected as a reference domain are considered as residual factors (Eid et al., 2017). The reason for the procedure is closely related to one of the challenges with the traditional bifactor model: creating anomalous results (Eid et al., 2017; Gade et al., 2017). That is, in traditional bifactor model, factor loadings of the items on some factors become low or non-significant. This would result the factor to collapse, which in turn changes the meaning of the *G* factor. In fact, the *G* factor represents the items of the collapsed factor (Gade et al., 2017; Geiser et al., 2015). To resolve such issue, applying the bifactor-(*S* - 1) model is recommended to redefine the *G* factor. In bifactor-(*S*-1) model, a specific factor is purposely selected as a reference factor to be collapsed, which is determined by theoretical

support and statistical support (Eid et al., 2017; Gade et al., 2017; Heinrich et al., 2020).

Another assumption in the bifactor-($S-1$) model is that the specific factors can be correlated, which indicates partial relationship between the specific factors after accounting for the variance shared with the reference domain (Eid et al., 2017). The bifactor-($S-1$) model also has the following assumptions: 1) The G factor and the specific factors cannot be correlated because the specific factors are defined as residual factors, 2) The mean values of the specific factors is always zero, because residual factors always have means of zero by definition, 3) The specific factors can be correlated which are partial correlations after accounting for the common influence from the G factor, 4) The meaning of the G factor does not change when domains are added or removed because the G factor is still connected to the reference domain, 5) The meaning of the G factor changes only when the reference domain changes meaning that the G factor is always the common factor of the reference domain, 6) The fit of the model can change when the reference domain changes because the heterogeneity of the items changes when a different factor is selected as a reference domain (Eid et al., 2017).

Applying the bifactor-($S-1$) model to CSS, G -factor was named as General Country Satisfaction. Simultaneously, while the domains within the CSS (*Equality & Acceptance*, *Resources & Benefits*, *Systemic Structures*) were closely correlated, the variables belonging to *Resources & Benefits* (Diversity in Society, Natural Beauty, Opportunities to Fulfill Civic Duties, and Amount of Natural Resources) contain items that are more associated with the operational definition of country. As mentioned before, country is defined as a community of people sharing identity, history, and cultures within a particular geographical region or territory. In relation to the definition, the items in *Resources & Benefits* are more dependent on the geographical location of the country. For example, the amount of natural resources

within the country is highly dependent on where the country is located in the world. As a result, *Resources & Benefits* was selected as a reference factor in the bifactor-(*S*-1) model of the CSS. Therefore, in the CSS, *G* factor is defined as the level of country satisfaction represented by *Resources & Benefits*, and the specific factors are defined as the variables that belong to *Systemic Structures* and *Equality & Acceptance* which measures individual's level of country satisfaction beyond the influence of the variables in *Resources & Benefits*.

The use of bifactor-(*S*-1) model for CSS can also be supported by previous research. As mentioned before, a branch of country satisfaction research included asking country satisfaction directly and observing the influence of specific domains of environmental variables (e.g., economic variables). In fact, Morrison and colleagues (2011) investigated national satisfaction by directly measuring national satisfaction and a select number of variables (e.g., personal health, availability of electricity/TV/computer/Internet, and household income). This method to measure country satisfaction was based on the observation that individuals with different economic conditions continuing to experience differing levels of country satisfaction (e.g., people in poor living condition still having high levels of country satisfaction; Biswas-Diener & Diener, 2001). The results from these studies show that country satisfaction could be an independent construct in addition to environmental variables. In this vein, the existence of *G* factor also aligns with this branch of country satisfaction research.

Comparing the *G* factor and previous research, one question could be asked on the reason why to have a factor structure and domains, including the *G* factor, within country satisfaction when previous research have already asked country satisfaction directly. It is important to note that even in the research that directly asked country satisfaction (Morrison et al., 2011; Moyano-Diaz & Palomo-Velez, 2018), select number of economic variables

(e.g., household income, availability of electricity, social security, etc.) was also used to examine individual's well-being. However, as evidenced in the other branch of country satisfaction research, there are more than economic variables that are associated with country satisfaction (Bjornskov et al., 2008; Nonnenmacher & Friedrichs, 2013). For example, a study by Bjornskov and colleagues (2008) showed that country-level variables consist of more than economic variables (e.g., institutional, human development/culture, etc.). Therefore, this study holds validity in examining variables beyond economic factors to examine the domains within country satisfaction.

In explaining the residual factors, *Systemic Structures* and *Equality & Acceptance* could still be independent domains after accounting for general country satisfaction. That is, variables belonging in *Systemic Structures* and *Equality & Acceptance* still independently influence individual's country satisfaction after accounting for the general country satisfaction. This can also be explained by previous branch of country satisfaction research observing the relationship between country-level variables (e.g., government size, quality of government, police performance, social inequality, etc.) and individual's life satisfaction (Bjornskov et al., 2008; Ho & Cho, 2017; Liu et al., 2019; Obydenkova & Salahodjaev, 2017). In previous research, the "country-level" variables generally belonged in exosystem and macrosystem. Exosystem includes societal structures that does not directly interact with an individual, such as government, legal system, and media and macrosystem includes values, traditions, and sociocultural characteristics of the society (APA Dictionary of Psychology). Within this branch of country satisfaction research, some researchers focused on the impact of select "country-level" variable(s) on individual satisfaction (Gorodzeisky et al., 2014; Liu et al., 2019; Obydenkova & Salahodjaev, 2017). For example, a study by Liu and colleagues (2019) observed the relationship between the perceived quality of government

and life satisfaction in China and found significant relationship. Similar results also occurred in the research by Obydenkova and Salahodjaev (2017) who examined the relationship between government size and life satisfaction among different countries.

In sum, although the first-order three-factor structure of the CSS is a valid model, the alternative models of second-order model and bifactor-(*S-1*) model are also supported through empirical evidence. In particular, the factor structure model of the bifactor-(*S-1*) model provides information about country satisfaction similar to the results of previous research. As such, I suggest the bifactors-(*S-1*) model as the theoretical factor structure of the CSS.

This study hypothesized that the CSS would have validity and reliability. The results of reliability tests supported the hypotheses, while some validity tests results need further explanation. The construct (convergent & discriminant) validity test results yielded some interesting results. In comparison to constructive patriotism, which showed did not show significant relationships in some models of the CSS as hypothesized, blind patriotism was positively correlated with country satisfaction, regardless of the factor model of the CSS. This can be interpreted that individuals who blindly support their country are likely to be satisfied with the country irrelevant of any shortcomings within the country. With constructive patriotism, in three-factor model, no significant correlation was observed between constructive patriotism and *Systemic Structures*, while showing a weak negative correlation with *Equality & Acceptance* and positive correlation with *Resources & Benefits*. This may have been reflected in the second-order model, showing non-significant correlation between general country satisfaction and constructive patriotism. On the other hand, in bifactor-(*S-1*) model, all factors were significantly correlated with constructive patriotism, which could mean that the uncorrelated relationship between the *G* factor and the specific

factors have influenced the correlation with constructive patriotism.

With social well-being, the validity test results showed again the different results between the components of social well-being: while there were significant correlations between country satisfaction and social integration, non-significant correlation was observed between social actualization and *Resources & Benefits*, as well as the *G* factor in bifactor-(S-1) model. Because the *G* factor is represented by *Resources & Benefits*, the correlation pattern seems to be consistent. As mentioned previously, social integration is defined as the quality of the individual's relationship to society, which overlaps with the definition of country satisfaction. As a result, such correlation between country satisfaction and social integration regardless of the factor model of the CSS seems valid. On the other hand, social actualization is defined as individual's projected outlook of the society. Results showed that social actualization was significantly correlated with *Systemic Structures* and *Equality & Acceptance*, meaning that these factors could help the individual to evaluate the outlook of the society. On the other hand, *Resources & Benefits* was not significantly correlated, meaning that the country with high amount of resources or benefits does not necessarily predict outlook of the society.

Finally, the results of this study supported hypotheses that there are differences in country satisfaction scores by different identity groups, supporting the known-groups validity (level of discrimination between groups that are known to be different by a test) of the CSS. The results closely followed the general assumptions that could be made about country satisfaction. By gender, males tend to have higher country satisfaction than women and/or other gender minority population. This can be supported by the very existence of feminism, which is defined as, "the advocacy of women's rights on the basis of the equality of the sexes." (Oxford Languages, accessed April 25, 2021). This means that women are less happy

about the systemic structures within the country, receive less equal treatment, and receive less benefits from the country, which is the goal of feminism: to implement equality in the system, such as government, society, and country.

By ethnicity, a significant difference between African Americans/Black individuals and multiracial individuals was found in the three-factor model for *Systemic Structures*. Such difference could be understood in how multiracial individuals experience difficulties in fitting into the system. In fact, although multiracial population have existed for a long period of time, they are only recently being considered as a “new” demographic (Masuoka, 2017). As a result, African American/Black individuals, who are often considered to experience systemic disadvantages, may have higher satisfaction about the system than multiracial individuals because the African American/Black population has been established in the American system (Daniel, 2010; Shih & Sanchez, 2009). Another noteworthy point in the results is that there was no significant difference in country satisfaction between White-identified population and other ethnic groups. It is often expected that the White population would have higher country satisfaction in Western society. To explain how the data analysis result was not the expected result, the particular timeframe that the data was collected needs to be considered. The data for this study was collected during the year 2021 where the White identity became a sensitive issue due to the incidents that occurred in the year 2020 and 2021. The death of George Floyd had brought attention to White supremacy, and the White identity politics have continued to invoke defensiveness, which was visibly manifested by the attack on the Capitol Hill by extreme White supremacists. This has brought distress to White identified individuals, regardless of their defensiveness to their identity (Carter et al., 2020; Cole, 2020; Siegel & Carter, 2014). As such, they may have been in a state where they are feeling distressed living in the U.S. due to their White identity.

With SES, there were significant differences between lower middle class and middle-class group, as well as between lower middle class and upper middle-class group. An interesting point is that there was no significant difference in scores with individuals in lower class. A potential explanation to the result is the perceived upward mobility. Upward mobility is defined as the capacity to rise to a higher economic or social position (Merriam-Webster, accessed March 28th), and people strive to move to a higher economic or social position. For example, a study Cole and Omari (2003) showed that education is often considered as a tool for upward mobility in African Americans. However, in case the objective living condition is difficult, there seems to be a pattern that people tend to express higher than expected level of country satisfaction. In the study by Biswas-Diener and Diener (2001), individuals with difficult living conditions in Calcutta reported higher than expected life satisfaction. This was interpreted as people in lower classes searching and connecting with alternative sources that could provide strong satisfaction. Similar interpretation could be made to the results of this study. It is possible that people in lower class may have found resources on their own or were connected with resources that could influence them to have higher levels of country satisfaction. For example, there are supports and programs developed by various levels of governments within the country to provide assistance to low-income households (Sherman et al., 2013). As such, if individuals in lower class are able to be connected to these programs, while still experiencing financial difficulties, they may still feel like the country is helping them, leading to have higher levels of country satisfaction.

Another interesting result is that while there were significant differences in country satisfaction by sexual orientation, no specific between-group differences were observed. A potential explanation could be within the items of the CSS. That is, there are no direct items addressing the sexual orientation group in the final version of the CSS; Acceptance of

LGBTQ+ population was eliminated. As a result, while certain sexual orientation populations may have experienced dissatisfaction with the country, it may have been difficult to be reflected in the CSS. In terms of region, another interesting result is the significant difference in scores between the Northeastern U.S. and Southeastern U.S./Midwest U.S. group. In particular, a significant difference was found in *Systemic Structures*. This may be due to the difference in the development of the systemic infrastructure in these regions. Northeastern U.S. include of New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Massachusetts, which have been traditionally known to be historically occupied longer, leading to higher development level of systemic infrastructures than the Southeastern or Midwestern U.S. By community level, results showed that individuals in urban communities tend to have higher country satisfaction than suburban and rural communities. Research evidence supports such results. In a study by Du and colleagues (2017), residents in the urban Chicago area reported higher levels of life satisfaction than residents in suburban Chicagoland communities. Finally, significant group differences by individuals with high school degree and associate degree and high school degree and bachelor's degree in *Systemic Structures* and *Equality & Acceptance* was found. It has been well known that education level and life satisfaction is closely related due to the impact of higher education level has on earning opportunities (Ferrante, 2009; Salinas-Jimenez et al., 2011). As such, the results support previous research that there is a significant difference in individual's satisfaction by education level.

Implications – Theoretical

The results of this study provide the following theoretical implications. This study has primarily integrated *Social Identity Theory* and the *Bioecological model* in exploring the country-level variables to understand how an individual interacts with environmental variables encompassed within a country. It was proposed that, by social identity theory, the

environment influences the individual through its connection to individual's identities, which are inevitably connected to various characteristics of the environmental variables. That is, regardless of where the environmental variables are defined within ecosystems, as long as the variables share characteristics with individual's identity, they will influence the individual. Therefore, this study hypothesized that variables within a country will influence the individual especially because country theoretically encompasses all environmental variables by connecting to individual's identity: resident of the country. When discussing components within a country, there are too diverse factors to be effectively investigate them. In order to effectively categorize the environmental variables within the country, the Bioecological model (Bronfenbrenner, 1994) was used to define the "country-level" variables and the influence of the subsequent variables were investigated.

Implications – Statistical

This study provided additional evidence of the effectiveness of bifactor-(*S*-1) modeling. Although the concept of *G*-factor and bifactor modeling have existed since the early 1900s (Holzinger & Swineford, 1937; Spearman, 1904), it has gained attention rather recently (Reise, 2012). With the use of *G*-factor and bifactor modeling, especially with bifactor-(*S*-1) modeling, researchers have re-examined existing constructs and provided enriched understanding of the concept. For example, Heinrich and colleagues (2020) used bifactor-(*S*-1) modeling method to re-examine the factor structure of the *Beck Depression Inventory – II* (BDI-II). Despite the assessment being used widely, BDI-II has received criticism over inconsistent factor models and item-factor connection, which in turn creates problems in interpreting the scores (Vanheule et al., 2008). To resolve such issue, research has used bifactor modeling approach which provides a better fit (Bonifay & Cai, 2017; Bonifay et al., 2017; Brouwer et al., 2013). The study by Heinrich and colleagues (2020)

compared existing first-order CFA, bifactor model and bifactor-(*S*-1) model to examine the model fit of BDI-II. Results showed that bifactor-(*S*-1) model explains the model better especially when there is a clear explanation of difference between the *G* factor and *S* factor, and the domains of *S* factors are highly correlated. The applicability of bifactor-(*S*-1) model was supported with other constructs, such as perfectionism (Gade et al., 2017; Seong et al., 2021), psychopathology (Heinrich et al., 2020), and negative emotions (Eid et al., 2017).

This study also was able to apply bifactor-(*S*-1) modeling to provide a factor structure to country satisfaction. As mentioned repeatedly, although country (national) satisfaction has conceptually existed since the 1960s (Cantril, 1965), ways to measure it have been largely inconsistent without having a significant conceptual structure. This study was able to provide structure to comprehensively understand country satisfaction and use bifactor-(*S*-1) modeling to explain the existing trends in country satisfaction research. Much like the aforementioned research (Eid et al., 2017; Gade et al., 2017; Heinrich et al., 2020), results of this study shows that country satisfaction is composed of *G* factor and *S* factor (*Systemic Structures and Equality & Acceptance*). *G* factor indicates general country satisfaction that can be asked directly, while *S* factors indicate inherent country satisfaction within the variable.

Implications – Counseling Psychology

The results of this study provide the following implications to the field of counseling psychology. This study provides evidence that the influence of larger environmental variables on individual's well-being. This study also provides additional support to country-wide events influencing individual's well-being, which was extensively discussed through many organizations, such as schools, counseling centers, and the CDC, during the pandemic.

Directly applied to clinical practice, the results of this study bring emphasis on the

role of country on individual's well-being during case conceptualization. In case conceptualization, a counselor is required to integrate a large amount of information (cognitive, interpersonal, behavioral, emotional, and social) to understand client's functioning and developing treatment plans (Lee & Tracey, 2008; Sue & Sue, 2003). Moreover, the need to integrate multicultural variables in case conceptualization has steadily increased (Sue & Sue, 2003). This is supported by the recent reports that clients report poorer mental health in the events their country satisfaction can be impacted, such as the COVID-19 pandemic and the Presidential Election (Center for Disease Control [CDC], 2020; University of Michigan Counseling and Psychology Services, 2021; Yan et al., 2020). Furthermore, extant research has already listed country-wide event, such as the COVID-19 pandemic, becoming the primary reason for negative mental health (Wostyn, 2021). As such, integrating country satisfaction into case conceptualization is an integral process and needs to be constantly considered in case conceptualization.

Another way that counseling psychologists can engage in integrating country satisfaction into practice is through advocacy. Advocacy is defined as taking action to promote the well-being of clients, with an emphasis on removing or minimizing barriers to clients' well-being (American Counseling Association Advocacy Task Force, 2020). This is also in line with counseling psychologist's responsibility as agency to disseminate knowledge on mental health. As many have already done so, clinicians have provided strategies to manage mental health during a country-wide event, where country satisfaction is inevitably impacted. Furthermore, counseling psychologists are responsible in understanding systemic barriers to individual's well-being, providing information on the systemic barriers in detail, such as policies and allocation of funding, and connecting to agencies responsible in dismantling the barriers. Integrating the results of this study, counseling psychologists could

highlight the systemic barriers specific to the country, based on history and culture (Naidoo & Cartwright, 2020), to clients and work toward addressing the country-specific barriers.

Counseling psychologist's role in advocacy is also in line with social justice practice. Emphasis on social justice and multicultural competency has steadily increased in counseling psychology (Gess, 2016). In fact, counseling psychologists have named counseling competencies initially emphasizing multicultural counseling, which was eventually evolved into Multicultural and Social Justice Counseling Competency (MSJCC; Ratts et al., 2015). The MSJCC largely consists of: 1) Counselor self-awareness, 2) Client's worldview, 3) Counseling relationship, and 4) Counseling and advocacy interventions (Ratts et al., 2015). Using the results of this study, I am going to apply country satisfaction to each competency within MSJCC.

In terms of counselor self-awareness, multicultural and social justice competent counselors should develop self-awareness through exploring their own attitudes, beliefs and views toward the country and develop knowledge, skills, and action relative to their self-awareness. To understand client's worldview, including view of the country, counselors are required to maintain open mind to understand client's experiences, attitudes, assumptions, and emotions including their experience within the country, as both privileged and marginalized identity. Furthermore, multicultural, and social justice competent counselors are required to understand how the similarities and difference in counselor's self-awareness and client's worldview, including the view on the country by both the counselor and the client. Finally, counselors intervene with and on behalf of clients at multiple levels, including interpersonal, institutional, community, and public policy, which are all variables measuring country satisfaction (Ratts et al., 2015). In sum, the results of this study add stronger call to action to counseling psychologists as agents of social justice with its close connection to the

interventions.

Limitations & Suggestions for Future Research

This study also has the following limitations. One limitation is the specific period the CSS was developed, and data were collected. The item development process (individual interviews) was conducted during the year 2020; the year many nation-wide events occurred. In particular, the nation-wide events in 2020 were largely polarizing and was strongly associated with discriminations within the country. As a result, it could be possible that the ideas on discriminations, equality and acceptance may have been discussed more, which may have been reflected in the scale. A potential support for this is the items belonging in *Equality & Acceptance* having more items (12 items) than other domains. Future studies could re-examine the factor loadings of the items in *Equality & Acceptance* at a different time period, when discrimination and equality are not of central issues within the United States.

Another limitation of this study is the number of variables covered in the CSS. While I have conducted multiple interviews and reviewed previous research on country-related environmental variables extensively, because of the sheer number of environmental variables that are associated with a country, it is possible that some environmental variables that is important to country satisfaction may have not been covered. Future studies could cross-examine the CSS with the variables used in larger survey, such as World Values Survey and World Happiness Report, and expand the variables within the CSS if necessary.

Data collection method could be another limitation to this study. This study used Amazon MTurk to collect data. Although Amazon MTurk allows the researcher to collect survey data conveniently, it is a relatively unknown tool to the general population. Furthermore, the population of participants in Amazon MTurk are limited: 1) the majority of undergraduate users of Amazon MTurk are female, 2) more than half of the participants are in

ages between 18-39, and 3) approximately 75% of the participants in Amazon MTurk are White identified (Moss & Litman, 2020). This was also shown in this study where the majority of the participants were White identified in the preliminary study data, and nearly 500 out of 800 participants identifying as White in main study data. Data was collected unevenly by different demographic information as well, such as legal status, gender identity, and sexual orientation. Future studies should attempt to collect data representing more diverse identities within the country.

Because CSS is a new method to measure country satisfaction, one limitation of this study is the lack of examining convergent validity. As performed in this study, validity tests are a necessary procedure included in scale development. In order to measure the construct validity of the newly developed scale, convergent validity is often tested (Boateng et al., 2018). In convergent validity test, evidence of convergent validity can be provided by the extent to which the newly developed scale correlates highly with other scales measuring the same construct (Boateng et al., 2018). However, besides a single question directly asking country satisfaction (Morrison et al., 2011), there are no other scales measuring country satisfaction. Therefore, this study was not able to perform convergent validity test. Future studies could conduct convergent validity test by creating additional version of the CSS, such as shorter version, to compare with the original version. Future studies could also attempt to compare the single question version of country satisfaction and the CSS to examine the convergent validity.

One potential limitation of this study is that the items are developed based on the U.S. population. Although the factors and variables in the CSS are developed to understand facets of a country, because it is developed using the U.S. population, the items may reflect more of the country characteristics of the U.S., rather than the global context. For example,

the item ‘Governments (Federal to State/City) Co-operating)’ is only applicable to countries that have local government system. In such cases, if the CSS are to be used in countries with centralized government system, monarchy or other forms of government, the item could be eliminated to reflect the government characteristic of the country. The elimination of items occurs frequently in measurement invariance process applying a measure developed in one country to another country.

Finally, a limitation of this study is that the consistency of factor structure and items loading on the domains has yet been examined using specified groups. Future studies should examine cross-national validity of the CSS via measurement invariance tests applying the CSS to samples collected in different countries. Studies have shown that variables could be interpreted differently depending on certain characteristics (e.g., culture, values, beliefs, etc.) of the sample (Eid & Diener, 2001; Schmitt & Kuljanin, 2008; Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998; Vandenberg & Lance, 2000). As such, it is possible that the factor loading pattern of the items in the CSS may be different in other countries having different values, cultures, and beliefs from the United States. Therefore, measurement invariance test is necessary especially when future studies attempt to utilize the CSS in a different country.

Conclusion

The development of the CSS was raised from witnessing the impact of country-wide events on people’s well-being. The need for assessing country satisfaction and its impact on individual’s well-being particularly accelerated in 2020, due to the abundance of country-wide events. Based on the diversity of the country-wide events, this study hypothesized that there are multiple variables influencing individual’s country satisfaction, which in turn influences individual’s well-being. To understand how country satisfaction influences individual’s well-being, this study integrated several theories, such as Social Identity Theory

and Bioecological model, and multiple statistical methods, namely factor analyses and bifactor-(*S-1*) modeling. The results of this study were able to provide a diverse factor structure for country satisfaction. This study was also able to provide evidence of the relationship between country satisfaction and individual's life satisfaction.

Perhaps the biggest challenge in applying the results of this study into counseling psychology practice is the lack of agencies that could immediately impact individual's country satisfaction. However, Biswas-Diener and Diener (2001) provided a potential solution in their research while explaining how country satisfaction may manifest: some individuals are personally satisfied with their country that it compensates for the potential negative emotions experienced from objectively poorer living conditions. This can be applied in reverse: to compensate for the negative emotions from country, other environmental variables within the individual's control could be improved.

In practice, counseling psychologists could use the result of this study in several ways. One way is to emphasize the role of the counseling psychologists as agents of advocacy. Counseling psychologists are part of the system within the country for the clients, and their role could involve connecting the clients to communities that shares similar emotional distress, and work as an agent bridging the clients and systems in the country to create positive change. Furthermore, counseling psychologists could work towards improving the impact of environmental variables in closer proximity within the country (e.g., managing anxiety about future for a client graduating college during economic recession by working towards improving the relational bond with family and friends; Vignoli, 2015). I hope that my research on country satisfaction and developing the CSS can aid in specifying what can be resolved, what help counseling psychologists can provide, and what counseling psychologists need to understand about country satisfaction to help people improve their well-being.

APPENDIX A
INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Demographic Information

Sex/Gender:

Sexual Orientation:

Age:

Marital Status:

Number of children:

Education Level:

Ethnicity:

SES (perceived):

Religion:

Work:

Current residing city:

Grew up where:

Served in the army/Veteran status:

Number of years living in US:

Visa/Green Card/Citizenship status:

Physical illness:

Mental Illness

Interview

1. Reflecting on your various identities, what are some of the things you are happy about the United States in general?
2. Reflecting on your various identities, what are some of the things you are unhappy

- about the United States in general?
3. Reflecting on your various identities, what are some of the things you are happy about the United States in terms of political aspect?
 4. Reflecting on your various identities, what are some of the things you are unhappy about the United States in terms of political aspect?
 5. Reflecting on your various identities, what are some of the things you are happy about the United States in terms of institutional aspect?
 6. Reflecting on your various identities, what are some of the things you are unhappy about the United States in terms of political aspect?
 7. Reflecting on your various identities, what are some of the things you are happy about the United States in terms of economic aspect?
 8. Reflecting on your various identities, what are some of the things you are unhappy about the United States in terms of political aspect?
 9. Reflecting on your various identities, what are some of the things you are happy about the United States in terms of social aspect?
 10. Reflecting on your various identities, what are some of the things you are unhappy about the United States in terms of political aspect?

APPENDIX B

INFORMED CONSENT AND SURVEY QUESTIONS – STUDY 2

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN SURVEY

Project Title: The Development and Validation of Country Satisfaction Scale

Researcher(s): Daewon (Dave) Kim, MA

Faculty Sponsor: Eunju Yoon, PhD

Introduction:

You are being asked to take part in a research study being conducted by Daewon (Dave) Kim for doctoral dissertation under the supervision of Eunju Yoon, PhD, in the Department of Counseling Psychology at Loyola University of Chicago.

You are being asked to participate because you are a current resident of United States, regardless of your citizenship. The survey is planned be administered to approximately 500 participants. All participants must be 18 years and older.

Please read this form carefully and ask any questions you may have before deciding whether to participate in the study.

Purpose:

The purpose of this study is to learn about the relationship between the satisfaction towards the United States, and individual well-being.

Procedures:

If you agree to be in the study, you will be asked to answer questions on: various aspects of the United States that makes you feel happy/unhappy, your overall life satisfaction, your sense of patriotism, and hope. While answering the questions, you will be asked to reflect the question through the multiples identities that you have (e.g. gender, sexual orientation, ethnicity, religion, etc.). If you agree to participate in this survey, your participation will take approximately 15-20 minutes. The survey will be conducted via Amazon mTurk. The survey will not contain any information that reveals your identity (e.g. name, SSN, etc.). Your honest and complete response to the survey questions will be highly appreciated for valid research results

Risks/Benefits:

There are no foreseeable risks involved in participating in this research beyond those experienced in everyday life. Your participation in this online survey involves risks similar to a person's everyday use of the Internet. There are no direct benefits to you from participation, but you may gain a greater understanding about your thoughts on your country, in this case the United States. You will also be helping counseling/psychology professionals in their work with clients.

Compensation:

For your time and efforts in participation, you will be given \$0.50 through Amazon mTurk. You will receive a code at the end of the survey to enter to receive the payment.

Confidentiality:

Records identifying participants will be kept confidential to the extent permitted by applicable laws and regulations and will not be made publicly available. However, federal government regulatory agencies and the Institutional Review Board (a committee that reviews and approves human subject research studies) may inspect and/or copy your records for quality assurance and data analysis. These records may contain private information.

To ensure confidentiality to the extent permitted by law, the following measures will be taken: only PI and the faculty sponsor will have access to the data. The data (summarized content of the interview) will be created during the interview and will be stored on the primary investigator's computer with password protected computer files. We will be asking for your basic demographic information (e.g. age, gender, ethnicity, immigration status, SES, etc.). Records identifying participants will be kept confidential and will not be made publicly available.

Voluntary Participation:

Participation in this study is voluntary. If you do not want to be in this study, you do not have to participate. Even if you decide to participate, you are free not to answer any question or to withdraw from participation at any time without penalty.

Contacts and Questions:

If you have questions about this research study, please feel free to contact Daewon (Dave) Kim at dkim15@luc.edu or the faculty sponsor, Eunju Yoon, PhD, at eyoon@luc.edu.

If you have questions about your rights as a research participant, you may contact the Loyola University Office of Research Services at (773) 508-2689.

Statement of Consent:

By completing the survey you are agreeing to participate in the research. Your completion of the survey will indicate consent for an informed participation. If you decide not to participate in this study, you may simply disregard this survey.

Thank you very much for your time and effort.

Please tell us your age.**Please tell us your gender.**

1. Male
2. Female
3. Non-binary
4. Transgender
5. Other

Please tell us your racial/ethnic background

1. White
2. Black/African American
3. Asian or Asian American
4. Hispanic Origin
5. American Indian or Alaska Native
6. Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander
7. Multiracial
8. Other

Please tell us your status.

1. U.S. Citizen
2. U.S. Resident (Green Card Holder)
3. Non-Resident Alien (Work Visa or OPT Holders)
4. International Student
5. Undocumented

Please tell us your religious background**Please tell us where you think you stand on socioeconomic status.**

1. Lower Class
2. Lower Middle Class
3. Middle Class
4. Upper Middle Class
5. Upper Class

Please tell us your sexual orientation.

1. Heterosexual
2. Bisexual
3. Gay/Lesbian
4. Asexual
5. Other

Please tell us where you currently live in the United States.

1. Northeast U.S.
2. Southeast U.S.
3. Midwest U.S.
4. Southwest U.S.
5. West U.S.
6. Hawaii or Alaska

Please tell us which community you live in the United States.

1. Urban Community

2. Suburban Community

3. Rural Community

Please tell us your education level.

1. High School

2. Associate Degree

3. Bachelor's Degree

4. Master's Degree

5. Doctoral Degree

6. Other

How happy/unhappy are you about the following aspects of the United States?

Please rate the following aspects of the U.S. on a 7-point scale:

1 = Very Unhappy

2 = Unhappy

3 = Slightly Unhappy

4 = Neither Unhappy nor Happy

5 = Slightly Happy

6 = Happy

7 = Very Happy

How happy/unhappy are you about the following aspects of the United States?

1. Democracy in the U.S. political system.

1 = Very Unhappy

2 = Unhappy

3 = Slightly Unhappy

4 = Neither Unhappy nor Happy

5 = Slightly Happy

6 = Happy

7 = Very Happy

2. Public education system in the U.S.

1 = Very Unhappy

2 = Unhappy

3 = Slightly Unhappy

4 = Neither Unhappy nor Happy

5 = Slightly Happy

6 = Happy

7 = Very Happy

3. General cost of living in the U.S.

1 = Very Unhappy

2 = Unhappy

3 = Slightly Unhappy

4 = Neither Unhappy nor Happy

5 = Slightly Happy

6 = Happy

7 = Very Happy

4. Overall tax rates in the U.S.

1 = Very Unhappy

2 = Unhappy

3 = Slightly Unhappy

4 = Neither Unhappy nor Happy

5 = Slightly Happy

6 = Happy

7 = Very Happy

5. Freedom of expression in the U.S.

1 = Very Unhappy

2 = Unhappy

3 = Slightly Unhappy

4 = Neither Unhappy nor Happy

5 = Slightly Happy

6 = Happy

7 = Very Happy

6. Overall education system in the U.S.

1 = Very Unhappy

2 = Unhappy

3 = Slightly Unhappy

4 = Neither Unhappy nor Happy

5 = Slightly Happy

6 = Happy

7 = Very Happy

7. Acceptance of minorities in the U.S. society.

1 = Very Unhappy

2 = Unhappy

3 = Slightly Unhappy

4 = Neither Unhappy nor Happy

5 = Slightly Happy

6 = Happy

7 = Very Happy

8. Treatment of veterans in the U.S.

1 = Very Unhappy

2 = Unhappy

3 = Slightly Unhappy

4 = Neither Unhappy nor Happy

5 = Slightly Happy

6 = Happy

7 = Very Happy

9. Cohesive leadership from the U.S. government.

1 = Very Unhappy

2 = Unhappy

3 = Slightly Unhappy

4 = Neither Unhappy nor Happy

5 = Slightly Happy

6 = Happy

7 = Very Happy

10. Health care quality in the U.S.

1 = Very Unhappy

2 = Unhappy

3 = Slightly Unhappy

4 = Neither Unhappy nor Happy

5 = Slightly Happy

6 = Happy

7 = Very Happy

11. Division of the U.S. society by political ideology.

1 = Very Unhappy

2 = Unhappy

3 = Slightly Unhappy

4 = Neither Unhappy nor Happy

5 = Slightly Happy

6 = Happy

7 = Very Happy

12. How dedicated the U.S. citizens are in voting.

1 = Very Unhappy

2 = Unhappy

3 = Slightly Unhappy

4 = Neither Unhappy nor Happy

5 = Slightly Happy

6 = Happy

7 = Very Happy

13. Judicial system structure in the U.S.

1 = Very Unhappy

2 = Unhappy

3 = Slightly Unhappy

4 = Neither Unhappy nor Happy

5 = Slightly Happy

6 = Happy

7 = Very Happy

14. Economic disparity in the U.S.

1 = Very Unhappy

2 = Unhappy

3 = Slightly Unhappy

4 = Neither Unhappy nor Happy

5 = Slightly Happy

6 = Happy

7 = Very Happy

15. Current political leadership in the U.S.

1 = Very Unhappy

2 = Unhappy

3 = Slightly Unhappy

4 = Neither Unhappy nor Happy

5 = Slightly Happy

6 = Happy

7 = Very Happy

16. Amount of opportunities for success in the U.S.

1 = Very Unhappy

2 = Unhappy

3 = Slightly Unhappy

4 = Neither Unhappy nor Happy

5 = Slightly Happy

6 = Happy

7 = Very Happy

17. How the different levels of government (federal to state to city/township) work together.

1 = Very Unhappy

2 = Unhappy

3 = Slightly Unhappy

4 = Neither Unhappy nor Happy

5 = Slightly Happy

6 = Happy

7 = Very Happy

18. Different treatments by race in the U.S.

1 = Very Unhappy

2 = Unhappy

3 = Slightly Unhappy

4 = Neither Unhappy nor Happy

5 = Slightly Happy

6 = Happy

7 = Very Happy

19. Financial privileges in the U.S. in comparison with other countries.

1 = Very Unhappy

2 = Unhappy

3 = Slightly Unhappy

4 = Neither Unhappy nor Happy

5 = Slightly Happy

6 = Happy

7 = Very Happy

20. Sociopolitical structure of the U.S.

1 = Very Unhappy

2 = Unhappy

3 = Slightly Unhappy

4 = Neither Unhappy nor Happy

5 = Slightly Happy

6 = Happy

7 = Very Happy

21. Health care costs in the U.S.

1 = Very Unhappy

2 = Unhappy

3 = Slightly Unhappy

4 = Neither Unhappy nor Happy

5 = Slightly Happy

6 = Happy

7 = Very Happy

22. Acceptance of Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Trans, Queer + (LGBTQ+) populations in the U.S. society.

1 = Very Unhappy

2 = Unhappy

3 = Slightly Unhappy

4 = Neither Unhappy nor Happy

5 = Slightly Happy

6 = Happy

7 = Very Happy

23. Politicians working together to make the U.S. better

1 = Very Unhappy

2 = Unhappy

3 = Slightly Unhappy

4 = Neither Unhappy nor Happy

5 = Slightly Happy

6 = Happy

7 = Very Happy

24. Police services in the U.S.

1 = Very Unhappy

2 = Unhappy

3 = Slightly Unhappy

4 = Neither Unhappy nor Happy

5 = Slightly Happy

6 = Happy

7 = Very Happy

25. Sense of social security that U.S. gives me.

1 = Very Unhappy

2 = Unhappy

3 = Slightly Unhappy

4 = Neither Unhappy nor Happy

5 = Slightly Happy

6 = Happy

7 = Very Happy

26. Acceptance of immigrants in the U.S. society.

1 = Very Unhappy

2 = Unhappy

3 = Slightly Unhappy

4 = Neither Unhappy nor Happy

5 = Slightly Happy

6 = Happy

7 = Very Happy

27. Overall road conditions in the U.S.

1 = Very Unhappy

2 = Unhappy

3 = Slightly Unhappy

4 = Neither Unhappy nor Happy

5 = Slightly Happy

6 = Happy

7 = Very Happy

28. Socioeconomic gap in the U.S. society.

1 = Very Unhappy

2 = Unhappy

3 = Slightly Unhappy

4 = Neither Unhappy nor Happy

5 = Slightly Happy

6 = Happy

7 = Very Happy

29. Acceptance of different religions in the U.S. society.

1 = Very Unhappy

2 = Unhappy

3 = Slightly Unhappy

4 = Neither Unhappy nor Happy

5 = Slightly Happy

6 = Happy

7 = Very Happy

30. Amount of televised sports in the U.S.

1 = Very Unhappy

2 = Unhappy

3 = Slightly Unhappy

4 = Neither Unhappy nor Happy

5 = Slightly Happy

6 = Happy

7 = Very Happy

31. Equal opportunities for success in the U.S.

1 = Very Unhappy

2 = Unhappy

3 = Slightly Unhappy

4 = Neither Unhappy nor Happy

5 = Slightly Happy

6 = Happy

7 = Very Happy

32. Election system in the U.S.

1 = Very Unhappy

2 = Unhappy

3 = Slightly Unhappy

4 = Neither Unhappy nor Happy

5 = Slightly Happy

6 = Happy

7 = Very Happy

33. Public (civic) service qualities (e.g. city hall, postal service, DMV, etc.) in the U.S.

1 = Very Unhappy

2 = Unhappy

3 = Slightly Unhappy

4 = Neither Unhappy nor Happy

5 = Slightly Happy

6 = Happy

7 = Very Happy

34. Availability of ethnic minority communities in the U.S.

1 = Very Unhappy

2 = Unhappy

3 = Slightly Unhappy

4 = Neither Unhappy nor Happy

5 = Slightly Happy

6 = Happy

7 = Very Happy

35. Accommodations for the disabled in the U.S.

1 = Very Unhappy

2 = Unhappy

3 = Slightly Unhappy

4 = Neither Unhappy nor Happy

5 = Slightly Happy

6 = Happy

7 = Very Happy

36. Availability of resources in the U.S. schools.

1 = Very Unhappy

2 = Unhappy

3 = Slightly Unhappy

4 = Neither Unhappy nor Happy

5 = Slightly Happy

6 = Happy

7 = Very Happy

37. Employment rate in the U.S.

1 = Very Unhappy

2 = Unhappy

3 = Slightly Unhappy

4 = Neither Unhappy nor Happy

5 = Slightly Happy

6 = Happy

7 = Very Happy

38. Overall minimum wage in the U.S.

1 = Very Unhappy

2 = Unhappy

3 = Slightly Unhappy

4 = Neither Unhappy nor Happy

5 = Slightly Happy

6 = Happy

7 = Very Happy

39. How the U.S. citizens help the ones in need.

1 = Very Unhappy

2 = Unhappy

3 = Slightly Unhappy

4 = Neither Unhappy nor Happy

5 = Slightly Happy

6 = Happy

7 = Very Happy

40. Distribution of wealth in the U.S. society.

1 = Very Unhappy

2 = Unhappy

3 = Slightly Unhappy

4 = Neither Unhappy nor Happy

5 = Slightly Happy

6 = Happy

7 = Very Happy

41. Power position of the U.S. in the world.

1 = Very Unhappy

2 = Unhappy

3 = Slightly Unhappy

4 = Neither Unhappy nor Happy

5 = Slightly Happy

6 = Happy

7 = Very Happy

42. Military force of the U.S.

1 = Very Unhappy

2 = Unhappy

3 = Slightly Unhappy

4 = Neither Unhappy nor Happy

5 = Slightly Happy

6 = Happy

7 = Very Happy

43. How safe I feel living in the U.S.

1 = Very Unhappy

2 = Unhappy

3 = Slightly Unhappy

4 = Neither Unhappy nor Happy

5 = Slightly Happy

6 = Happy

7 = Very Happy

44. How well the U.S. co-operates with other countries.

1 = Very Unhappy

2 = Unhappy

3 = Slightly Unhappy

4 = Neither Unhappy nor Happy

5 = Slightly Happy

6 = Happy

7 = Very Happy

45. Amount of crimes in the U.S. society

1 = Very Unhappy

2 = Unhappy

3 = Slightly Unhappy

4 = Neither Unhappy nor Happy

5 = Slightly Happy

6 = Happy

7 = Very Happy

46. Friendliness of the U.S. citizens

1 = Very Unhappy

2 = Unhappy

3 = Slightly Unhappy

4 = Neither Unhappy nor Happy

5 = Slightly Happy

6 = Happy

7 = Very Happy

47. Control of the U.S. economy by large corporations.

1 = Very Unhappy

2 = Unhappy

3 = Slightly Unhappy

4 = Neither Unhappy nor Happy

5 = Slightly Happy

6 = Happy

7 = Very Happy

48. Medical service quality in the U.S.

1 = Very Unhappy

2 = Unhappy

3 = Slightly Unhappy

4 = Neither Unhappy nor Happy

5 = Slightly Happy

6 = Happy

7 = Very Happy

49. Unbiasedness of media in the U.S.

1 = Very Unhappy

2 = Unhappy

3 = Slightly Unhappy

4 = Neither Unhappy nor Happy

5 = Slightly Happy

6 = Happy

7 = Very Happy

50. Control of illegal substances in the U.S.

1 = Very Unhappy

2 = Unhappy

3 = Slightly Unhappy

4 = Neither Unhappy nor Happy

5 = Slightly Happy

6 = Happy

7 = Very Happy

51. Opportunities to fulfill civic duties (e.g. voting, jury, etc.)

1 = Very Unhappy

2 = Unhappy

3 = Slightly Unhappy

4 = Neither Unhappy nor Happy

5 = Slightly Happy

6 = Happy

7 = Very Happy

52. Amount of natural resources in the U.S.

1 = Very Unhappy

2 = Unhappy

3 = Slightly Unhappy

4 = Neither Unhappy nor Happy

5 = Slightly Happy

6 = Happy

7 = Very Happy

53. Natural beauty in the U.S.

1 = Very Unhappy

2 = Unhappy

3 = Slightly Unhappy

4 = Neither Unhappy nor Happy

5 = Slightly Happy

6 = Happy

7 = Very Happy

54. Systemic barriers in the U.S. for personal success

1 = Very Unhappy

2 = Unhappy

3 = Slightly Unhappy

4 = Neither Unhappy nor Happy

5 = Slightly Happy

6 = Happy

7 = Very Happy

55. Role of the U.S. in global economy.

1 = Very Unhappy

2 = Unhappy

3 = Slightly Unhappy

4 = Neither Unhappy nor Happy

5 = Slightly Happy

6 = Happy

7 = Very Happy

56. How the U.S. politicians listens to the constituents.

1 = Very Unhappy

2 = Unhappy

3 = Slightly Unhappy

4 = Neither Unhappy nor Happy

5 = Slightly Happy

6 = Happy

7 = Very Happy

57. How well the different identity groups (e.g. race, gender, religion, socioeconomic status, etc.) in the U.S. live together.

1 = Very Unhappy

2 = Unhappy

3 = Slightly Unhappy

4 = Neither Unhappy nor Happy

5 = Slightly Happy

6 = Happy

7 = Very Happy

58. Diversity of the U.S. society.

1 = Very Unhappy

2 = Unhappy

3 = Slightly Unhappy

4 = Neither Unhappy nor Happy

5 = Slightly Happy

6 = Happy

7 = Very Happy

59. Discriminations in the U.S. society.

1 = Very Unhappy

2 = Unhappy

3 = Slightly Unhappy

4 = Neither Unhappy nor Happy

5 = Slightly Happy

6 = Happy

7 = Very Happy

Thank you for your time.

APPENDIX C

INFORMED CONSENT AND SURVEY QUESTIONS – STUDY 3

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN SURVEY

Project Title: The Development and Validation of Country Satisfaction Scale

Researcher(s): Daewon (Dave) Kim, MA

Faculty Sponsor: Eunju Yoon, PhD

Introduction:

You are being asked to take part in a research study being conducted by Daewon (Dave) Kim for doctoral dissertation under the supervision of Eunju Yoon, PhD, in the Department of Counseling Psychology at Loyola University of Chicago.

You are being asked to participate because you are currently living in the United States, regardless of your citizenship. All participants must be 18 years and older.

Please read this form carefully and ask any questions you may have before deciding whether to participate in the study.

Purpose:

The purpose of this study is to learn about the relationship between the satisfaction towards the United States, and life satisfaction. This is part of the study developing a scale to measure how one feels happy/unhappy about various aspects of the country.

Procedures:

If you agree to be in the study, you will be asked to answer questions on the various aspects of the United States that makes you feel happy/unhappy. While answering the questions, you will be asked to reflect the question through the multiples identities that you have (e.g. gender, sexual orientation, ethnicity, religion, etc.). If you agree to participate in this survey, your participation will take approximately 15-20 minutes. The survey will not contain any information that reveals your identity (e.g. name, SSN, etc.). Your honest and complete response to the survey questions will be highly appreciated for valid research results.

Risks/Benefits:

There are no foreseeable risks involved in participating in this research beyond those experienced in everyday life. Your participation in this online survey involves risks similar to a person's everyday use of the Internet. There are no direct benefits to you from participation, but you may gain a greater understanding about your thoughts on your country, in this case the United States. You will also be helping counseling/psychology professionals in their work with clients.

Compensation:

For your time and efforts in participation, you will be given \$0.50 through Amazon mTurk. You will receive a code at the end of the survey to enter to receive the payment.

Confidentiality:

Records identifying participants will be kept confidential to the extent permitted by applicable laws and regulations and will not be made publicly available. However, federal government regulatory agencies and the Institutional Review Board (a committee that reviews and approves human subject research studies) may inspect and/or copy your records for quality assurance and data analysis. These records may contain private information.

To ensure confidentiality to the extent permitted by law, the following measures will be taken: only PI and the faculty sponsor will have access to the data. The data (summarized content of the interview) will be created during the interview and will be stored on the primary investigator's computer with password protected computer files. We will be asking for your basic demographic information (e.g. age, gender, ethnicity, immigration status, SES, etc.). Records identifying participants will be kept confidential and will not be made publicly available.

Voluntary Participation:

Participation in this study is voluntary. If you do not want to be in this study, you do not have to participate. Even if you decide to participate, you are free not to answer any question or to withdraw from participation at any time without penalty.

Contacts and Questions:

If you have questions about this research study, please feel free to contact Daewon Kim at dkim15@luc.edu or the faculty sponsor, Eunju Yoon, PhD, at eyoon@luc.edu.

If you have questions about your rights as a research participant, you may contact the Loyola University Office of Research Services at (773) 508-2689.

Statement of Consent:

By completing the survey you are agreeing to participate in the research. Your completion of the survey will indicate consent for an informed participation. If you decide not to participate in this study, you may simply disregard this survey.

Thank you very much for your time and effort.

Please tell us your age.**Please tell us your gender.**

1. Male
2. Female
3. Non-binary
4. Transgender

5. Other

9. White
10. Black/African American
11. Asian or Asian American
12. Hispanic Origin
13. American Indian or Alaska Native
14. Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander
15. Multiracial
16. Other

Please tell us your status.

6. U.S. Citizen
7. U.S. Resident (Green Card Holder)
8. Non-Resident Alien (Work Visa or OPT Holders)
9. International Student
10. Undocumented

Please tell us your religious background

Please tell us where you think you stand on socioeconomic status.

6. Lower Class
7. Lower Middle Class
8. Middle Class
9. Upper Middle Class
10. Upper Class

Please tell us your sexual orientation.

6. Heterosexual
7. Bisexual
8. Gay/Lesbian
9. Asexual

10. Other

Please tell us where you currently live in the United States.

7. Northeast U.S.
8. Southeast U.S.
9. Midwest U.S.
10. Southwest U.S.
11. West U.S.
12. Hawaii or Alaska

Please tell us which community you live in the United States.

4. Urban Community
5. Suburban Community

6. Rural Community

Please tell us your education level.

7. High School

8. Associate Degree

9. Bachelor's Degree

10. Master's Degree

11. Doctoral Degree

12. Other

How happy/unhappy are you about the following aspects of the United States?

Please rate the following aspects of the U.S. on a 7-point scale:

1 = Very Unhappy

2 = Unhappy

3 = Slightly Unhappy

4 = Neither Unhappy nor Happy

5 = Slightly Happy

6 = Happy

7 = Very Happy

1. Democracy in the U.S. political system.
2. Public education system in the U.S.
3. Freedom of expression in the U.S.
4. Overall education system in the U.S.

5. Acceptance of minorities in the U.S. society.
6. Health care quality in the U.S.
7. Economic disparity in the U.S.
8. How the different levels of government (federal to state to city/township) work together.
9. Different treatments by race in the U.S.
10. Acceptance of Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Trans, Queer + (LGBTQ+) populations in the U.S. society.
11. Politicians working together to make the U.S. better
12. Police services in the U.S.
13. Acceptance of immigrants in the U.S. society.
14. Acceptance of different religions in the U.S. society.
15. Equal opportunities for success in the U.S.
16. Public (civic) service qualities (e.g., city hall, postal service, DMV, etc.) in the U.S.
17. Availability of ethnic minority communities in the U.S.
18. Employment rate in the U.S.
19. Overall minimum wage in the U.S.
20. Military force of the U.S.
21. How safe I feel living in the U.S.
22. Amount of crimes in the U.S. society
23. Unbiasedness of media in the U.S.
24. Control of illegal substances in the U.S.
25. Opportunities to fulfill civic duties (e.g. voting, jury, etc.)
26. Amount of natural resources in the U.S.

27. Natural beauty in the U.S.
28. Role of the U.S. in global economy.
29. Diversity of the U.S. society.

How do you think you are doing in the society/community?

How much do you agree or disagree with the following statement?

Please rate the following on a 7-point scale:

1 = Strongly Disagree

2 = Disagree

3 = Somewhat Disagree

4 = Neither Disagree nor Agree

5 = Somewhat Agree

6 = Agree

7 = Strongly Agree

1. You don't feel you belong to anything you'd call a community.
2. You feel like you're an important part of your community.
3. If you had something to say, you believe people in your community would listen to you.
4. You feel close to other people in your community.
5. You see your community as a source of comfort.
6. you had something to say, you don't think your community would take you seriously.
7. You believe other people in society value you as a person.
8. You believe that society has stopped making progress.

9. Society isn't improving for people like you.
10. You don't think social institutions like law and government make your life better.
11. You see society as continually evolving.
12. You think our society is a productive place for people to live in.
13. For you, there's no such thing as social progress.
14. You think the world is becoming a better place for everyone.

How much do you agree or disagree with the following statements about the United States? Note: 'my country' = 'United States' for the following set of questions.

Please rate the statements on a 6-point scale:

1 = Strongly Disagree

2 = Disagree

3 = Somewhat Disagree

4 = Somewhat Agree

5 = Agree

6 = Strongly Agree

1. People who do not wholeheartedly support America should live somewhere else.
2. The United States is virtually always right.
3. I would support my country right or wrong.
4. The anti-Vietnam war protesters were un-American.
5. For the most part, people who protest and demonstrate against the U.S. policy are good, upstanding, intelligent people.
6. I believe that U.S. policies are almost always the morally correct ones.

7. If another country disagreed with an important United States policy that I knew little about, I would *not* necessarily support my country's position
8. People should not constantly try to change the way things are in America.
9. I support U.S. policies for the very reason that they are the policies of my country.
10. There is too much criticism of the U.S. in the world, and we its citizens should not criticize it.
11. It is un-American to criticize this country.
12. We should have complete freedom of speech even for those who criticize the country.
13. Because I identify with the United States, some of its actions make me feel sad.
14. People should work hard to move this country in a positive direction.
15. If you love America, you should notice its problems and work to correct them.
16. If I criticize the United States, I do so out of love for my country.
17. I oppose some U.S. policies because I care about my country and want to improve it.
18. I express my love for America by supporting efforts at positive change.
19. My love of country demands that I speak out against popular but potentially destructive policies.

Below are five statements that you may agree or disagree with. Using the 1 - 7 scale below, indicate your agreement with each item by placing the appropriate number on the line preceding that item. Please be open and honest in your responding.

1 = Strongly Disagree

2 = Disagree

3 = Slightly Disagree

4 = Neither Agree nor Disagree

5 = Slightly Agree

6 = Agree

7 = Strongly Agree

1. In most ways, my life is close to ideal.
2. The conditions of my life are excellent.
3. I am satisfied with my life.
4. So far, I have gotten the important things I want in life.
5. If I could live my life forever, I would change almost nothing.

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VITA

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While at Loyola, Dr. Kim was involved in research, teaching, and clinical training. Dr. Kim was involved with numerous research projects and research assistantships, which resulted in a number of research articles published in peer-reviewed journals, a book chapter on the role of school psychologists as leaders for social justice, and a handful of presentations at professional conferences. Dr. Kim has also been involved in teaching both as a teaching assistant and as an instructor. He served as an instructor for graduate-level *Group Counseling* class and also served as teaching assistant for graduate-level *Counseling Skills* and *Diagnostic Appraisal and Treatment Planning*. Finally, as part of clinical training required in doctoral program, Dr. Kim has worked at Loyola University Wellness Center, and School of the Art Institute of Chicago Counseling Services, and United Stand as a practicum student. Finally, Dr. Kim also served as clinical supervisor to students in the master's degree program on clinical internship.

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