UNIVERSITEIT VAN PRETORIA
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA
YUNIBESITHI YA PRETORIA

Gordon Institute of Business Science
University of Pretoria

The relationships between life factors, gender, work values and overall life satisfaction

Liesl Lohlun

20188189

A research project submitted to the Gordon Institute of Business Science, University of Pretoria, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Business Administration

29 January 2014

ABSTRACT

Companies need to respond to the changing wants of their employees in order to attract and maintain top talent. In order to do this, understanding what people value in the work setting is of utmost importance, which is why work values have become a popular topic in recent years. Studying the factors that influence work values helps in gaining deeper insights into employee well-being. It is also valuable to track work values over time in order to identify changing trends.

A quantitative research methodology was followed using secondary data from the World Values Survey (WVS). A multinomial logistic regression identified four key predictors of work values, namely: people's relationship status; the number of children that they have; their social class; and their gender. The interaction of these variables was found to cause people's work values to shift between extrinsic and intrinsic values.

People who place a bigger emphasis on intrinsic values were found to be much happier, not just at work but with their lives in general.

The findings have been consolidated into a comprehensive model that explains the effect that life factors and gender have on work values and the subsequent impact that work values have on overall life satisfaction. Organisations can build on this model to identify, grow and retain a satisfied workforce, which is a good fit for organisational/team values and takes into account issues of work-life balance which are typically difficult for managers to accommodate cost-effectively.

Keywords

Work values
Overall life satisfaction
Gender
Life factors
Multinomial logistic regression

DECLARATION

I declare that this research project is my own work. It is submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Business Administration at the Gordon Institute of Business Science, University of Pretoria. It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in any other university. I further declare that I have obtained the necessary authorisation and consent to carry out this research.

……

Liesl Lohlun

29 January 2014

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

There are many people who need to be thanked and acknowledged for the roles that they have played in helping me through this research process. Firstly, I need to thank Sandy Lowitt for agreeing to take me on as her first and only student. Her guidance throughout this research process, as well as her time and insights were invaluable. I would also like to thank Kerry Chipp for sharing her expert knowledge on the research process and for providing me with much needed advice along the way.

I am grateful for all the love and support from my friends and family. Thank you to my Kim Lohlun and James Stapley for proof-reading and editing, as well as to Grant Collister for his tremendous support over the past year and for always believing in me. Most importantly, I would like to thank my parents, without whom, I would not be where I am today.

Lastly, I would like to thank my fellow MBA colleagues who joined me on this incredible journey, especially to those were always there to provide, much needed, comic relief during some very stressful times.

CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

1. INTRODUCTION TO THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

1.1 Introduction

A combination of interlocking factors has caused many changes in the labour market over the past 40 years (Johnson & Monserud, 2012). These factors include globalisation, technological innovation and changing ideologies (Bakker & Karsten, 2013; Johnson & Monserud, 2012). Egalitarian views have spread and increasing numbers of women are becoming better educated and entering the workforce (Damaske, 2011). Technological advancements have created new jobs, as well as completely changed the processes by which established ones are done. The advent of mobile technology has caused the line between personal and work lives to blur. This, coupled with the growing number of dual income families has made maintaining the work-life balance increasingly complicated (Von Bergen, 2008). Indeed, the resulting change in attitudes and behaviours in the workplace has, in recent years, become a popular topic of discussion (Parry & Urwin, 2011). Such changes are challenging the modern enterprise and both research to understand their impacts and novel tools to manage the workforce are required to address these issues.

1.2 The Research Proposition

Cultural, social and economic forces create the context that shapes people's beliefs and behaviours. One of the biggest changes since the Second World War has been the participation of women in the paid workforce (Kalleberg & Marsden, 2013). However, even though there are more women working, the types of jobs that they seek still differ to those selected by men (Parry & Urwin, 2011). This implies that men and women might value different things in a job. A possible reason for the differing wants is that despite the shift towards more individualistic, feministic and egalitarian views, women are still largely seen as the primary caregivers of children and still often hold more responsibility than their male counterparts in the day-to-day running of a household (Kuperberg & Stone, 2008). This suggests that marital status and the number of children that people have could impact the work values of men and women

differently. The purpose of this study is to test the relationship between life factors, gender, work values and overall life satisfaction. It will first examine whether people's work values have been changing over time. It will then seek to determine whether and how three primary life factors, namely: marital status, number of children and class influence the work values of individuals and whether there is a statistically significant difference between men and women. Lastly, it will analyse the impact that work values have on overall life satisfaction and interpret these findings in the context of the literature to identify management implications.

1.3 The Business Case

People select jobs based on their personal values such as the amount of time that they wish to apportion between work and family (Posner, 2010). Researchers are interested in work values mainly because of the role that they play in occupational choices and the fulfilment that employees get from their jobs (Johnson, 2005). The reasons that people work are based on their work values (Kalleberg & Marsden, 2013). Work values also influence the importance that people assign to different types of rewards, and subsequently, the satisfaction that they derive from their jobs (Kalleberg & Marsden, 2013). Understanding work values and their key determinants is important to employers because previous research has shown that work values are a good predictor of employee decisions, their output and tenure (Frieze, Olsen, Murrell, & Selvan, 2006).

Work values affect employee expectations and behaviour, which is why people who share the same values are more likely to understand each other and work well together. This is known as *value congruence* (Perrewé & Hochwarter, 2001). People whose values are congruent with those of the organisation for which they work are happier, more motivated and perform at higher levels. In contrast to this, unhappy employees typically display increased absenteeism and turnover (Mysíková & Večerník, 2013). As older workers retire, organisations are facing challenges with regard to recruiting and retaining young talent who have substantially different work values to older members of the workforce (Twenge, Campbell, Hoffman, & Lance,

2010). It is thus beneficial for organisations to understand the driving forces behind work values in their workforce. This will help them to hire employees that best fit the organisation, in addition to helping to understand how best to motivate and keep their employees happy.

1.4 Motivation for the Research

Research has revealed that work values are important predictors of tenure and job satisfaction. Blickle et al. (2011) have demonstrated through empirical study that work values are a good predictor of differences in organisational and vocational behaviour. Work values tend to be broader and more comprehensive than career aspirations, thus making them useful to study. Also, specific occupations can come and go, which is why it is more meaningful to study the work values, rather than the occupational and career choices associated with individuals (Johnson & Monserud, 2012).

Recent graduates are facing a very different world to the one that their parents and grandparents experienced (Johnson & Monserud, 2012). Tracking the changes in work values may lead to better understanding of employee well-being (Johnson & Monserud, 2012). Kalleberg and Marsden (2013) examined the changes in work values in the United States from 1973 to 2006. They found that the trends in work values reflected structural changes in the economy. For example, there was a relative increase in those valuing job security and high incomes, which is thought to be related to decreasing confidence in employment security and economic performance. They also found that the ratio of working men and women has changed considerably over the years, with an increasing percentage of women entering the workplace. Various other studies examining the differences in work values between men and women have been performed (Gahan & Abeysekera, 2009; Hagström & Kjellberg, 2007). The majority of these studies were limited to specific demographic groups of people and these studies were largely conducted in the United States. Due to the fact that many of the causes of differing work values have been found to be based on structural reasons, such as cultural, social and economic factors, it remains to be determined whether these results are universal or specific to certain cultures. This is especially

important due to increased globalisation, which means that an international approach to management is required (Schein, 2007). This study will make a contribution to filling this gap by studying work values from a global perspective.

Other studies have looked at how work values are influenced by societal and environmental influences (Gahan & Abeysekera, 2009), gender differences (Damaske, 2011) and historical and generational differences (Jin & Rounds, 2012) separately. This study aims to build a comprehensive model of how they interact and produce their influence on work values. The time element has generally been looked at from a generational perspective (Jin & Rounds, 2012; Twenge et al. (2010). This study examines whether they have been changing over time, but does not focus on whether these changes are due to generational differences as economic changes and job insecurity is universal and affects all generations.

It will further seek to confirm whether the results of previous researchers can be supported from an international workforce perspective. For example, various studies have shown small but consistent differences between men and women (Johnson, 2005; Kalleberg & Marsden, 2013). Women have been found to place slightly more value on intrinsic rewards, and men, slightly more value on extrinsic rewards. No major differences were found in regard to income and promotion, but women were found to prefer meaningful work which gave them a sense of accomplishment and men were found to place more importance on security (Kalleberg & Marsden, 2013).

Most of the literature on work values divides work values into intrinsic and extrinsic reward categories. Intrinsic rewards are those that are directly derived from the job, such as gratification due to a challenging or interesting job, whereas extrinsic rewards are those that are related to the job but are external to the actual tasks involved in the job, such as monetary rewards, prestige or security in the form of good pay (Johnson, 2005). This research will look at two intrinsic and two extrinsic rewards. It will empirically test whether life factors and gender influence preferences for intrinsic and extrinsic work values, and whether the balance between intrinsic and extrinsic work values has changed over time.

Overall life satisfaction is very strongly linked to the happiness people experience at work (Linz & Semykina, 2012). The Theory of Work Adjustment postulates that people develop job satisfaction when their values are reflected in their job (Leuty & Hansen, 2011). This research will further test the relationship between work values and overall life satisfaction and explain the results from a theoretical perspective.

1.5 Objectives of the Research

The main objective of the study is to add to the literature on the determinants of work values. It will do this by reviewing the existing literature on the contributing factors that influence work values and analysing their relationship to work values. It will then empirically test the validity of these relationships and use a combination of the statistical results and the current literature to build a comprehensive model of the main variables that impact work values.

The second objective of the study is to investigate the relationship between work values and overall life satisfaction. The two research objectives are summarised in Figure 1.1.

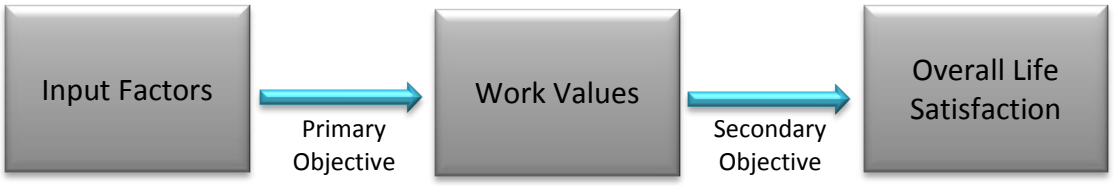

Figure 1.1: Research Objectives

The primary object is to analyse whether there is a relationship between the input factors and work values. The secondary objective is to test whether there is an association between work values and overall life satisfaction.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature review begins with a discussion on the societal and environmental changes that have occurred in the last few decades, specifically with regards to the impact that shifting gender ideologies have had on attitudes regarding work and the subsequent demographic changes in the workforce. It then explains how this has exacerbated work-family life complexities, for women in particular. Following this, the construct of work values is examined in detail. Then, the impacts that the changes in the workforce have had on work values are discussed; and lastly, it examines the importance of work values from both the perspective of the employer or company as well as that of the individual.

2.1 Societal Changes

During the last four decades, the workplace has experienced a widespread liberalisation of gender roles and there have been major social changes including individualisation, secularisation, economic restructuring and emancipation (Bakker & Karsten, 2013; Bolzendahl & Myers, 2004). This is visible through the increase in the number mothers in the workplace and "shifting demographics of family and parenthood" (Bolzendahl & Myers, 2004, p. 579). More and more women have been entering the workforce and the nuclear family, where the man is the sole financial provider and the woman stays at home, is becoming increasingly rare (Perrewé & Hochwarter, 2001).

2.1.1 Gender Ideology

Gender ideology can be used to explain the shift in the participation of women in the paid workforce. "Gender ideologies are sets of beliefs that may guide marital decisions, workforce participation, and family formation; they are not static, but flexible and responsive to life changes, such as job opportunities and marital and parenthood status" (Damaske, 2011, p. 412). Changing gender ideologies have led to a

rise in the representation of women in the paid workforce, but have had a minimal effect on men who are strongly involved in paid work regardless of their gender ideologies (Nordenmark, 2004).

The gender ideology of women is influenced by many things; class, gender, race, age, education and location all help to determine their future workforce participation expectations and their feminist attitudes (Bolzendahl & Myers, 2004; Damaske, 2011). Their feminist attitudes are also affected by specific combinations of marital status and the number of children that they have (Bolzendahl & Myers, 2004).

2.1.1.2 Generations

Attitudes, beliefs, behaviours and even mental health have morphed over the generations. Overall, younger generations are more individualistic and self-focused than their parents and grandparents were (Twenge et al., 2010). Western societal views regarding gender have changed over time with the result that younger women in these societies were brought up in an age cohort that was more liberal and have thus been increasingly socialised accordingly (Bolzendahl & Myers, 2004). The socio-political environment in which an adolescent girl is raised will help to shape her opinions with regard to what role she should adopt and the life choices she ought to make (Damaske, 2011). The more egalitarian the environment is, the more likely she is to hold egalitarian views and, likewise, the more egalitarian her views, the more likely she is to seek further education, enter the paid workforce and spend proportionately less time on household labour and childcare (Damaske, 2011; Nordenmark, 2004).

2.1.1.3 Marital Status and Parenthood

Younger women are usually not invested in traditional family arrangements. As such, they have been found to be more egalitarian because they are more likely to be financially independent and have fewer children and thus benefit the most from feminist ideals such as equal opportunities in the workplace (Bolzendahl & Myers, 2004). Similarly, divorced women are often forced into a less traditional role due to

their need to become financially independent. In contrast, couples with many children are more likely to have a traditional family structure where the woman is the main caregiver (Bakker & Karsten, 2013). Paradoxically, it has been found that the more children that a woman has, the more likely she is to believe that women should have a less traditional role at home. A possible reason for this is that women with lots of children often wish that their spouses would help out more in the home and begin to long for more time outside of household and child rearing activities (Bolzendahl & Myers, 2004).

Parenthood has been shown to change the allocation of household labour and has further been known to affect men and women differently. For example, over time fathers are less likely to leave their job, whereas mothers are more likely to leave their job. In addition to this, men who become fathers generally begin to work longer hours, while motherhood has the opposite effect (Johnson, 2005).

2.1.1.4 Class and Education

Historically, class is another factor that has affected participation of women in paid labour. Due to working class men earning considerably less than middle and upper class men, there was a greater likelihood that working class women needed to enter the paid workforce to supplement the familial income (Damaske, 2011). Over time, norms and attitudes regarding women in the workforce have changed, which has resulted in middle class women acquiring higher levels of education and subsequently moving into what were previously male dominated positions (Damaske, 2011). This has far-reaching consequences as there is a high likelihood that educated mothers will pass on their feminist ideas to their children (Bolzendahl & Myers, 2004). Thus, women of all classes are entering the workforce in increasing numbers, the difference being that people with higher levels of education and income are more likely to succeed at balancing work and home life (Bakker & Karsten, 2013).

2.1.1.5 Work-Family Balance

The increasing number of dual-career and single parent households has made the balancing of paid work, childcare and leisure more complicated and has increased the importance of managing the work-family balance (Bakker & Karsten, 2013; Von Bergen, 2008). According to the 2006 Society of Human Resource Management survey, people younger than 35 reported that having a good work-life balance was the most important component of job satisfaction (Von Bergen, 2008). In the past, this struggle to find balance between work and family life was only associated with women, but now it is a growing concern for men as well. Increasing numbers of both men and women are suing their employers over matters of family responsibility discrimination (Von Bergen, 2008).

The breakdown of the traditional nuclear family, where the father is the main breadwinner and the mother stays at home, typically means that children need to be cared for by hired help and can only be looked after by their parents after work hours (Bakker & Karsten, 2013). Single parents are even more constrained than those who are co-parents and they are often worse off. They usually end up sacrificing leisure time for work and other household activities (Bakker & Karsten, 2013). As a result, single parents experience more stress and work-family balance issues (Bakker & Karsten, 2013).

Despite more women having paid jobs, mothers are still socially expected to put the needs of their children first (Bakker & Karsten, 2013). The result is that more women than men eventually end up leaving their careers in order to look after their children. Women are far more likely to leave work to care for their children than to devote themselves to non-childcare household or wifely duties (Von Bergen, 2008). In a high-profile article in *The New York Times*, Belkin (2003) coined the phrase "opt-out" to describe highly educated, successful career women who choose to give up their careers in order to look after their families. The fact that women are opting-out is sometimes seen as a feminist victory in that women are now afforded choice. This is masking the reality of the structural barriers that women face in maintaining the work-family balance (Kuperberg & Stone, 2008). Despite the media's portrayal of educated,

professional women "opting-out" and the status that comes with it, the statistics actually show that the opposite is true for the majority of families. The more educated a woman is, the less likely she is to leave the workforce (Kuperberg & Stone, 2008).

According to Bolzendahl and Myers (2004), women who work can be detrimental to those who would rather have a more traditional role in the home, as they make employers less likely to offer a "family wage" to men, that is, a wage that is high enough to support the traditional sole breadwinning role and negate the need for dual income households. Whilst people with feminist beliefs challenge the assumption that women should be primarily responsible for looking after the home and caring for the children, opponents believe that in households where the woman tries to both work and perform the roles of mother and wife, everyone suffers (Bolzendahl & Myers, 2004).

Women choose to leave the workplace for a variety reasons. In a study done by Von Bergen (2008), very few women cited work-related reasons for leaving; the majority of them cited lack of high-quality, affordable child care. Interestingly, half of the respondents that chose to give up work to become stay-at-home mothers said that they had mixed feelings about leaving work. In reality, many of them still have some form of paid work and are involved in freelancing, consulting or are in the process of starting their own businesses. In addition to this, the majority of them said that they were planning to go back to work at some point. This indicates that most women want to have some form of paid work whilst still being able to care for their children. The lack of part-time positions available to women with children makes it extremely difficult for them to maintain a work-family balance (Booth & Van Ours, 2008).

Women who have children often plan to return to their previous positions after their maternity leave, but frequently return to work to find that they have lost their status and responsibility (Metz, 2011). According to Metz (2011), women sometimes leave the workforce because of hostile working environments, but this is often misconstrued as them leaving for family responsibility reasons. This can produce a vicious cycle whereby management perceives female workers as being "uncommitted" to their work and inadvertently create a work atmosphere or human resource policies that fail

to meet the needs of women seeking to balance the demands of career and family; such patterns, in turn, reinforce the situation, forcing women to leave and further cements negative perceptions of female workers. Some companies do not offer the same opportunities to women as they do to men and use the excuse that women are more likely to leave due to family responsibility reasons (Metz, 2011). Work-family programmes designed to help women may inadvertently end up failing because it is not the structure of the programmes that affects their efficacy, but the people who do or do not place value in these programmes (Hakim, 2006). Research shows that while family-friendly policies can help women in maintaining a good work-family balance, they can actually exacerbate pay gap, "glass ceiling" and occupational segregation problems because they focus specifically on mothers when in fact they should be gender neutral (Hakim, 2006). These problems can cause women to feel "squeezed out" of their positions and results in them citing "masculine, chauvinistic" work environments as their reason for leaving (Metz, 2011). Mainiero and Sullivan (2005) claim that the reasons for women leaving a job cannot be predicted by family structure, but are actually very similar to those of men and that they have more to do with a perceived lack of opportunity. In fact, there is a higher probability that women will cite "finding a greater challenge" as a reason for a career move as opposed to men whose reasons are generally more goal-oriented. Whether the lack of opportunity is a consequence of the fact that they are women is not always clear. It is often thought that the reason that women leave the workforce is because they choose to look after their families but it could be because women are still generally paid less, thus making it less worthwhile for them to work; furthermore, it may be the reason that many of them choose to work fewer hours or even leave the workplace. This means that the official reason given for leaving is pay and opportunity, but the real underlying reason is gender-related (Booth & Van Ours, 2008).

2.2 Work Values

There are many different ways to define values, the most general being what people perceive to be right and wrong (Parry & Urwin, 2011). They can also be defined as the

way in which people choose between options, evaluate the world or as the mode of behaviour used to achieve a desired result (Warr, 2008). Besides helping to guide people in their decision-making process, they also help with giving meaning to life (Perrewé & Hochwarter, 2001). The five most common features included in the definitions of values are, "(a) concepts or beliefs, (b) about desirable end states or behaviours, (c) that transcend specific situations, (d) guide selection or evaluation of behaviour and events, and (e) are ordered by relative importance" (Schwartz & Bilsky, 1987, p. 551). Due to the transcendental nature of values, they can be applied to different aspects of life, one such aspect being one's work life (Jin & Rounds, 2012). Hence, work values help to determine what individuals find to be personally rewarding in a job, and also consequently, affect job satisfaction and motivation (Shao, Resick & Hargis, 2011).

2.2.1 Work Values as a Construct

Various different constructs for work values have been developed. The Minnesota Importance Questionnaire used factor analysis to group 20 different work needs into six work values namely, "Achievement (the importance of accomplishment), Comfort (freedom from stress), Status (the importance of recognition and prestige), Altruism (the importance of helping others), Safety (the importance of stability and structure), and Autonomy (the importance of control over one's work)" (Leuty & Hansen, 2011, p. 380).

As noted by Leuty (2010), Manhardt's Work Values Inventory uses a five point scale to rate 25 job characteristics. Twenty one of these items form three overarching categories: Comfort and Security (a routine schedule, leisure time and good relationships with co-workers), Competence and Growth (responsibility and advancement) and Status and Independence (intrinsic characteristics that relate to independence, continued development of skills and intellectual stimulation).

The General Social Survey (GSS) is one of the most prominent data sources used to study work values in the United States. It asks respondents to rank the following five

job categories from the most important to the least important: high income, no danger of being fired, short working hours (lots of free time), chances for advancement and work that is important and gives a feeling of accomplishment (Kalleberg & Marsden, 2013).

In a similar survey, the World Values Survey (WVS), which is the largest source of cross national public opinion and is the data source analysed in this study, asks respondents what their first most important choice is when looking for a job. Respondents are asked to choose from four possible responses: a good income, a safe job with no risks, working with people they like and doing an important job (World Values Survey, 2011).

There is controversy over whether measuring values with a rating or a ranking scale is better. Rating allows people to rate different work values equally and it is also more statistically useful. However, because values are desirable it could lead people to cite very little variation between them. In contrast, ranking forces a distinction between values (Hitlin & Piliavin, 2004). The fact that there as so many different ways that work values can be categorised and measured makes comparisons across different studies difficult (Leuty & Hansen, 2011). There is, however, evidence that if the non-differentiating respondents are removed from a sample of rating data that the results produced will resemble those of ranked data (Hitlin & Piliavin, 2004). In addition to this, despite all the different measures and labels, certain fundamental types of work values are consistently identified, such as personal meaning, exchange/compensation, status and social contact (Jin & Rounds, 2012).

2.2.2 The Development of Work Values

As with all things, people form preferences for some values over others (Shao et al., 2011). Whilst core values remain fixed, peripheral values are malleable and are known to change (Perrewé & Hochwarter, 2001). Various individual characteristics have been found to influence a person's work values. These include gender, age, generation, culture and geographic location (Parry & Urwin, 2011). As the variable age suggests, work values change throughout the different phases of a person's life. The relative

importance of the facets of a person's job change in accordance with their life events such as work experiences, marriage, child-birth, mid-life crises, etc. (Kalleberg & Marsden, 2013).

The adolescent phase of people's lives has often been the focus of attempts to understand the development of work values and occupational aspirations. However, it is a misconception that work values are predominantly determined during adolescence (Johnson & Monserud, 2012). Jin and Rounds (2012) found that during the period of adolescence, work values remain relatively stable due to there being very little exposure to stimuli that would trigger a change. It is most common to see flux in the work values of young adults between the ages of 18 to 22, as this is when people explore different life directions and are often in university or post-high school training of some kind, where they are forced to start planning their careers. At this stage, work values have a tendency to be intrinsic and idealistic in nature. This changes when people move into the labour market, where their values often become more realistic and the value that they attach to rewards decreases (Jin & Rounds, 2012; Johnson, 2005). Sometimes a reinforcement and accentuation process occurs; whereby people start to place greater importance on things that they have either already achieved or that they know are achievable (Johnson & Monserud, 2012; Kalleberg & Marsden, 2013). They can even start to devalue things that they know they are unlikely to achieve through a process called cognitive dissonance (Kalleberg & Marsden, 2013). This results in "zeroing in", whereby people become increasingly selective in what they value (Johnson & Monserud, 2012, p. 46).

As people take on adult family roles through getting married and having children, their work values often show a greater emphasis on extrinsic rewards in the form of pay, benefits and job stability and reduced emphasis on intrinsic rewards such as challenging and interesting tasks. The further along people are in their career and the higher up the corporate ladder they get, the more people start to value status and prestige (Jin & Rounds, 2012). With age, work values eventually tend to stabilise (Johnson & Monserud, 2012).

2.2.2.2 Generations

As the labour force changes with each new cohort, so too do work values. Each new cohort arrives with a different set of skills, with later generations being more technologically savvy. They have different expectations and preferences to the cohorts that they replaced (Kalleberg & Marsden, 2013).

In a study conducted in the United States by Twenge et al. (2010), it was found that the importance placed on leisure and extrinsic rewards was steadily increasing over generations. Twenge et al. (2010) defined Baby Boomers as people born between 1946 and 1964, Generation X as people born between 1965 and 1981 and the Millenial generation as people born between 1982 and 1999. According to Twenge et al. (2010), the Millennial generation is often thought to be more altruistic than previous generations, but this was shown not to be the case. The Millennial generation values extrinsic rewards only slightly less than Generation X and still more than the Baby Boomers. They also rated intrinsic rewards higher than previous generations. Kalleberg and Marsden's (2013) study in the United States confirmed these results; it was found that most people have a strong preference for work that gives them a sense of accomplishment, followed by income, advancement, security and short hours. Whilst accomplishment remains the top priority, there is a trend indicating that as each new cohort enters the work force, valuing a sense of accomplishment diminishes and extrinsic values such as income, security and short hours increases which is potentially due to increased job and economic uncertainty (Kalleberg & Marsden, 2013).

Generation X is known for being the first generation to grow up in a society where divorce was commonplace and dual income households were not unusual. They also had a substantially higher chance of witnessing their parents lose their jobs (Sullivan, Forret, Carraher, & Mainiero, 2009; Twenge et al., 2010). There were uncertainties at home, as well as in the world at large, causing them to become distrustful of organisations. The result is that they are well accustomed to dealing with change but it could also be the reason that they value security in the workplace (Sullivan et al., 2009). It is ostensibly also the reason that newer generations place a greater emphasis

on flexibility and are far more likely than older generations to try and make work accommodate their personal lives. The notion of a work-family balance is largely associated with people of Generation X or younger (Twenge et al., 2010).

2.2.2.3 Marital Status and Parenthood

Getting married and becoming a parent often results in self-reflection. People re-evaluate their responsibilities, beliefs and priorities which can often affect the value that they place on work-related activities. For example, the responsibility of becoming a parent can result in people starting to value a good income more than they did previously. This is particularly true for men because even in dual income families it is still common for people to view the man's income as the primary source of income and the woman's income as secondary (Johnson, 2005). As such, new fathers are more likely to feel an increased financial anxiety than new mothers. Single mothers, on the other hand, are likely to experience similar conditions to those experienced by men. While parenthood makes men start to value extrinsic rewards more, it can result in women valuing intrinsic rewards less. This is because mothers start to place more value on jobs that have a good work-family balance and are less likely to want to devote as much time and energy into a challenging job. Even though the work values of both men and women are altered in different ways by becoming parents, the increase in valuing extrinsic rewards in men and the decrease in valuing intrinsic rewards in women cause the same net effect (Johnson, 2005).

Marriage has been found to decrease the importance of intrinsic work values across both genders. This is possibly due to people placing greater emphasis on getting intrinsic rewards from their relationship. However, Johnson (2005) found that the work values of young people are good indicators of their future marital and parental status. The direction of the relationship between work values and marriage is thus unclear.

2.2.2.4 Class and Education

Stronger intrinsic and weaker extrinsic reward values are associated with the better educated. People with a tertiary education are more likely to value challenging and rewarding jobs over stable and secure jobs (Johnson, 2005). Individuals who suffer the most from job insecurity, such as the less educated and those that are discriminated against are likely to place high importance on monetary rewards. This is not just out of necessity; it is also connected to one's upbringing. Parents are most likely to stress the importance of experiences that they found to be the most rewarding. As such, middle class parents often stress the importance of self-direction and intrinsic rewards because those are the things that brought them the most satisfaction in their working lives, whereas working class parents are more likely to encourage conformity and obedience and a need for a higher income, reflecting their own experiences (Kalleberg & Marsden, 2013).

2.2.2.5 Gender

2.2.2.5.1 Relationships

When it comes to relationships, there are many stereotypes about the differences between men and women, many of which have been proven to be more than just conjecture (Hakim, 2006). Men and woman have been found to value different things in relationships. A typical example is that men are more likely to value activities shared with friends, whereas women are more likely to value the sharing of emotions (Morrison, 2009). Women are also far more likely to have fewer but more intimate friends than men (Morrison, 2009). Due to the fact that women place such a strong emphasis on relationships, including those with their leaders, it is often the breakdown of relationships at the workplace that drives women to leave (Metz, 2011).

The work environment can often be very stressful. The "fight or flight" model proposes that when a person is under extreme stress, they have a higher pain threshold and increased cognition, thus allowing them to either fight or flee. This theory is under scrutiny regarding gender differences and the "tend and befriend"

theory has been put forward as an alternative for women (Morrison, 2009). "Physiological, neuroendocrine mechanisms would have evolved in females to facilitate behaviours that increase the survival of their offspring" and these mechanisms facilitate tending and befriending as opposed to fighting or fleeing (Morrison, 2009, p. 2). Thus, during stressful situations at work, women seek the council of other people more frequently than men. This theory helps to explain why Hagström and Kjellberg (2007) found that social relations, work conditions and altruism were rated as being more important to women than men; whereas benefits, influence and career growth were rated more highly among men.

2.2.2.5.2 Blending

People categorise themselves into different roles for the different aspects of their lives (Bakker & Karsten, 2013). For example, in the home setting, a person might define themselves as a mother or wife, but in the work setting, they might define themselves as an employee. The extent to which these roles overlap is known as "flexibility". A person might answer their work-related phone calls and emails in the home setting and could conversely spend time at work worrying about their children (Bakker & Karsten, 2013). According to Mainiero and Sullivan (2005), women are more likely to blend their work and non-work lives, whereas men tend to keep the two more separate. As a result of this "blending", women are less likely to adopt a linear approach to their careers. They prefer to create their own career path that suits their needs and objectives at any given moment. Thus, they choose jobs and make career decisions based on how well the job will "blend" with their other needs and wants. This provides a plausible explanation as to why women are more likely than men to resign from formal employment and instead freelance or start their own businesses when they start a family (Booth & Van Ours, 2008; Mainiero & Sullivan, 2005).

Men value family time and balance as much as women do, but the timing as to when they make these realisations differs to that of women (Mainiero & Sullivan, 2005). Men are more likely to focus solely on their jobs in the initial phases of their careers and only realise later on the importance of work-family balance. This causes men to follow a more sequential pattern, where they concentrate on their careers in the early

stages of their working lives and then change their focus to incorporate their families later in life (Mainiero & Sullivan, 2005). Women focus on both from the outset and tend to blend the two, thus giving the impression of multitasking. The fact that women want to "blend" is a possible explanation as to why women are far more likely to opt for part-time jobs than men (Booth & Van Ours, 2008).

2.2.2.4.3 Preference Theory

According to Hakim (2006), many differences between men and women have been found to be socially constructed, one of these being cognitive differences. The cognitive differences between men and women have been eroded over time as women started receiving access to higher education. However, personality and behavioural differences have not changed. As such, the disparity between women and men in the workplace could be out of choice rather than discrimination (Booth & Van Ours, 2008; Hakim, 2006). According to preference theory, people make their own choices based on preference. Social structures, such as class, are becoming less important factors in making these decisions, whereas personal core values are becoming better predictors of behaviour (Hakim, 2006). Preference theory proposes that individualism is the driving force behind the change and that individualism allows both men and women the freedom to make their own choices as there are no predefined cultural norms (Hakim, 2006).

2.2.2.4.4 Individual versus Cultural Influences

Even with more women in developed countries obtaining relevant education and entering the workforce on the same levels as men, very few women are appointed to top management (Davidson & Burke, 2011). This raises the question as to whether this is due to inherent differences between the sexes or whether the root cause is still structural. Both blending and preference theory suggest that the observable differences in work behaviours and beliefs between sexes are caused by underlying innate differences between men and women. However, there is overwhelming evidence that points to the fact that there are still huge gender inequality and

discrimination issues in both developed and developing countries (Schein, 2007; Timberlake, 2005).

Sociological theories surrounding work values focus on social contexts that help to shape people's work values, whereas psychological theories focus on understanding the connection between personality traits, dispositions and work values (Kalleberg & Marsden, 2013). The influences of work values have been divided into cultural level factors and individual level factors. Cultural level factors are the effects that familial, societal and cultural norms have on an individual's work values. Cultural level factors can result in what is known as "collective programming of the mind", which distinguishes members of one group from another (Hofstede, 2001 as cited in Gahan & Abeysekera, 2009, p. 131). This is often observed at a national level where national culture has a significant impact on work values and behaviours. Individual level factors include personality traits, demographic characteristics and personal ideologies. It should be noted, however, that it is impossible to completely separate cultural level factors from individual level factors as many individual level factors are influenced by cultural level factors. For example, gender is a demographic characteristic which is an individual level factor, but societal roles and expectations influence behaviour and thoughts at a cultural level (Gahan & Abeysekera, 2009). Hartung, Fouad, Leong, and Hardin (2010) found that individualism and collectivism were not useful variables for understanding work values. As such, this study does not focus on one over the other and it makes no clear distinction between the two. It simply looks at various different life factors that potentially influence work values.

2.3 Work Values, Satisfaction and Company Cohesion

Values help to determine what people find to be personally rewarding. There is evidence to suggest that work values influence things like job satisfaction and employee motivation (Shao et al., 2011). In addition to this, some values may create collaborative and helpful employees, whereas others will cause employees to participate in competitive, harmful behaviour (Shao et al., 2011). This section looks at

how work values affect overall life satisfaction and subsequently how this impacts performance at work.

Despite the increasing number of mothers taking on full-time jobs, according to the study done by Booth and Van Ours (2008), both life and work satisfaction of women, is higher when they have part-time jobs. This could be due to the fact that society places men and women in different roles. These roles often originate from cultural and individual values (Gahan & Abeysekera, 2009; Perrewé & Hochwarter, 2001). It is possible that women are happier when they have part-time jobs because they gain self-esteem from working but are still able to get social acceptance from having the time to look after their families (Booth & Van Ours, 2008). The well-being of women is directly connected to whether they perceive their role, whether it is in the workplace or at home, as being of value (Warr, 2008). This brings into question the degree to which gender ideologies have actually changed. Men too were found to be happier when they followed the cultural norm of having full-time jobs (Booth & Van Ours, 2008). This is because the most common reason for dissatisfaction is when there is a conflict of values. People are the most happy when all of their values align. This is known as value congruence. In this example, men and women are typically happiest when their personal values align with societal norms.

This alignment of values can also refer to values between different individuals, values between an individual and an organisation or even an individual's internal values (Parry & Urwin, 2011; Perrewé & Hochwarter, 2001). As discussed in the work-family balance section, it is not always possible to separate work and family domains. In fact, due to greater numbers of dual income families, it is becoming increasingly more difficult to do so. When there is work-family conflict, people are likely to feel more dissatisfied with their jobs as well as life in general (Perrewé & Hochwarter, 2001). Perrewé and Hochwarter (2001) contend that the reason that some people find it easier to balance work and family life is because their personal and work values are in harmony, whereas those individuals whose personal and work values conflict typically experience difficulty balancing work and family life.

Within the family unit, if both spouses share similar values, this decreases the chances of them experiencing work-family conflict. The same applies to work colleagues. People with value congruence are far more likely to have the ability to predict each other's behaviour and understand one other (Perrewé & Hochwarter, 2001). They are more likely to work well together as a team and individuals who share the same values as the organisation for which they work are less likely to resign (Perrewé & Hochwarter, 2001). Friendships play an important role in the workplace. People make friends at work to help them achieve work objectives as well as for personal and emotional reasons. Hertzberg's (1966) well-known two-factor theory states that good interpersonal relationships do not necessarily increase employee satisfaction, but a lack of them will cause dissatisfaction (as cited in Morrison, 2009). In addition to this, having friends at work has been found to be a stronger motivator than monetary rewards (Morrison, 2009). Increased globalisation and diversity in the workplace increases the chances of misunderstandings caused by cultural differences. This has made the ability to understand the work values of other individuals increasingly important (Gahan & Abeysekera, 2009).

Matching a person's work values and the characteristics of their job is a major source of job satisfaction (Johnson & Monserud, 2012). In addition to job satisfaction, value congruence between employees and the organisation in which they work increases motivation as well as performance levels (Parry & Urwin, 2011; Perrewé & Hochwarter, 2001).

Rockeach's (1973) typology of values separated them into instrumental and terminal values (as cited in Porfeli, 2007). Instrumental values refer to the mode of behaviour involved in reaching the end state, whereas terminal values refer to a person's end state such as family security or social recognition (Perrewé & Hochwarter, 2001). Conflict between any of these behaviours will lead to dissatisfaction (Perrewé & Hochwarter, 2001). For example, a person might value honesty, but in order to satisfy a short-term work goal, a certain level of dishonesty is required. This represents a conflict between work and personal values, as well as terminal and instrumental values which will then lead to decreased levels of satisfaction. Negative emotional responses are more often than not attributable to a combination of the importance of a value to

an individual and the discrepancy between that value and what is obtained (Perrewé & Hochwarter, 2001). Congruence between all values will lead to the greatest levels of personal satisfaction (Porfeli, 2007).

Self-determination theory classifies work values as either intrinsic or extrinsic (Jin & Rounds, 2012). "Extrinsic work values refer to those outcomes of a job that yield material benefits, such as pay, promotion and comfortable working conditions. Intrinsic work values, in contrast, refer to those rewards that derive from the job itself, such as self-actualisation, sense of achievement, self-determination and competence" (Gahan & Abeysekera, 2009, p. 130). According to self-determination theory, extrinsic rewards induce controlled motivation (motivation caused by pressure and a sense of *having* to do something) whereas intrinsic rewards induce autonomous motivation (motivation caused by *wanting* to do something). It is a combination of extrinsic and intrinsic rewards that lead to satisfaction (Gagné & Deci, 2005). However, people who focus excessively on external rewards often neglect their personal wants. This can be detrimental to their psychological well-being (Vansteenkiste et al., 2007). An overemphasis on wealth and material possessions can lead to feelings of incompetence. Even when someone attains their extrinsic goals, they are still less likely to achieve job satisfaction than those who focus more on intrinsic rewards such as self-actualisation. An inability to attain autonomy not only decreases satisfaction levels but also leads to emotional exhaustion, employee turnover and decreased job performance (Vansteenkiste et al., 2007).

The unhappier people are at work, the less motivated they will be and the worse their output will be (Vansteenkiste et al., 2007). Not only is this bad for the organisation's productivity levels, it will also increase employee absenteeism and turnover (Mysíková & Večerník, 2013). Unfortunately, it is easier for organisations to modify extrinsic rewards than intrinsic ones. However, despite employers not be able to change the nature of the job, they can help to give the job more meaning by emphasising to employees how each individual task fits together into a bigger, more meaningful purpose and thus increase employee motivation (Gagné & Deci, 2005). Depending on the worker and their job role, managers can also potentially supply additional

autonomy, responsibility and other similar non-financial “rewards” likely to increase intrinsic work satisfaction (Gagné & Deci, 2005).

2.4 Summary

The literature reviewed focused on how generations, social class, marital status and the number of children that people have affects their ideologies and subsequently what they value in a job. It also covered how this differs between genders.

Many societal and structural changes have occurred over the last few decades. Massive strides have been taken with regard to gender equality and there have been major shifts in female gender ideology. The notion that it is “the woman’s job” to stay at home to look after the household and be the primary caregiver has been eroded over time. This has resulted in later generations of women obtaining increasingly higher levels of education and more women pursuing careers. This has far reaching consequences not just for women but men as well; members of dual income families face greater difficulties in maintaining the work family-balance. The literature discussed whether work values have been altered in any way as a result of these changes.

All of this is important as work values affect overall life satisfaction. For example, it has been found that people who value intrinsic rewards are often happier than those who place a greater emphasis on extrinsic rewards. Furthermore, if companies can find employees whose values align with those of the organisation, it will lead to better levels of performance and lower staff turnover.

3. RESEARCH PROPOSITIONS AND HYPOTHESES

Six hypotheses were proposed in order to determine the relationships between life factors, work values and life satisfaction and whether these relationships have changed over time. The testing of the hypotheses provided clarity on the selected variables that influence work values and how these work values affect the overall life satisfaction of an individual.

The study will assist in enhancing the understanding of what employees look for in a job and how this affects their satisfaction levels.

3.1 Hypotheses

The table below shows a high level view of the variables that were used to test each hypothesis:

Table 3.1: Variables considered in the hypotheses

This table lists the variable that was tested in relation to another variable for each of the six hypotheses.

Hypothesis Number	Variable	Relation To:
1	Wave	Work Values
2	Relationship Status	
3	Number of Children	
4	Social Class	
5	Gender	
6	Work Values	Overall Life Satisfaction

3.1.1 Hypothesis 1: Work values have been changing over time

Presented in the form of a null and alternative hypothesis:

H_0: There is no statistically significant association between wave and work values (i.e. work values have not been changing over time).

H_1: There is a statistically significant association between wave and work values (i.e. work values have been changing over time).

3.1.2 Hypothesis 2: There is a relationship between a person's relationship status and their work values

Presented in the form of a null and alternative hypothesis:

H_0: There is no statistically significant association between relationship status and work values (i.e. work values are independent of relationship status).

H_1: There is a statistically significant association between relationship status and work values (i.e. they are not statistically independent).

3.1.3 Hypothesis 3: There is a relationship between the number of children that a person has and their work values

Presented in the form of a null and alternative hypothesis:

H_0: There is no statistically significant association between number of children and work values (i.e. work values are independent of the number of children that people have).

H_1: There is a statistically significant association between number of children and work values (i.e. they are not statistically independent).

3.1.4 Hypothesis 4: There is a relationship between a person's social class and their work values

Presented in the form of a null and alternative hypothesis:

H_0: There is no statistically significant association between social class and work values (i.e. people's work values are independent of their social class).

H_1: There is a statistically significant association between social class and work values (i.e. they are not statistically independent).

3.1.5 Hypothesis 5: There is a relationship between a person's gender and their work values

Presented in the form of a null and alternative hypothesis:

H_0: There is no statistically significant association between gender and work values (i.e. they are statistically independent).

H_1: There is a statistically significant association between gender and work values (i.e. they are not statistically independent).

3.1.6 Hypothesis 6: Overall perceived life satisfaction ratings differs across different work values

Presented in the form of a null and alternative hypothesis:

H_0: $\mu_1 = \mu_2 = \mu_3 = \mu_4$ (i.e. the mean rating of overall perceived life satisfaction is equal across all work values.)

μ_1 is the mean life satisfaction of people who chose a good income as their most important work value; μ_2 is the mean life satisfaction of people who chose a safe job with no risk; μ_3 is mean life satisfaction of people who chose working with people they like; and μ_4 is the mean life satisfaction of people who chose doing an important job.

H_1: At least one μ_i differs from the others (i = 1, 2, 3, 4)

4. METHODOLOGY

4.1 Research Design

The aim of the study was to investigate whether there is a relationship between life factors and work values and how this relationship might differ between genders, and also to determine how work values relate to overall life satisfaction. While the literature review considered these aspects from a theoretical perspective, the study also involved the analysis of quantitative data as part of the investigation. As such, the study could be regarded as descriptive in nature as it aimed to provide an accurate and valid representation of the variables that pertained to the research questions. Descriptive research, as the name implies, describes characteristics of objects, people, groups, organisations and environments (Zikmund, Carr, & Griffin, 2012). A quantitative approach was used, which according to Ligthelm, Martins, and Van Wyk (2005), is appropriate for analysing data collected from a large number of individuals. The study employed an *ex post facto* research design.

4.2 Research Instrument and Data Source

Secondary data in the form of The World Values Survey (WVS) were used as the primary source of data. The WVS is a global research project that explores people's values and beliefs. The survey is conducted regularly, with repeat studies approximately every five years. There are currently five "waves" available: 1981-1984, 1989-1993, 1994-1999, 2000-2004 and 2005-2008. The sixth wave will be available in April 2014 (World Values Survey, n.d.-c). The fifth wave aggregated file was used, which includes the surveys conducted by the WVS from 1981 to 2008 across 87 societies, totalling more than 256,000 interviews (see Appendix A for the full list of countries).

The data from the World Values Survey were appropriate because they contain data relevant to addressing the research questions. Furthermore, the data were readily available. Whilst primary data would have given the researcher control of the data, secondary data in the form of the WVS had the benefit of a large organisation that was

able to get completeness of coverage which an individual would not be able to obtain within the time and resources available (Morris, 2008). The WVS collected data from respondents located in various countries around the world; thus offering a global perspective, rather than being limited to a single country or specific demographic and cultural domain. The questionnaire used by the WVS covers a wide range of values and goes far beyond the scope of work values. As such, only a subset of the data in the WVS was used, more specifically the data that pertain to work values. (Refer to Appendix B for the survey selected questions whose data were analysed in this study.) Another benefit to using the WVS is that it allowed the researcher to analyse historical trends, something that would not have been possible in this study if primary data had been used.

The mode of data collection for WVS surveys was face-to-face interviewing. Other modes (e.g. telephone, mail and internet) were not acceptable except under very exceptional circumstances and only on an experimental basis. Written Executive Committee approval was necessary for modes of data collection other than face-to-face interviewing (World Values Survey, 2012).

As per the constitution of the WVS, "[The WVS] exercise[s] due care in developing research designs and survey instruments, and in collecting, processing, and analysing data, taking all reasonable steps to assure the reliability and validity of results… . If any of [the WVS] work becomes the subject of a formal investigation of an alleged violation of [their code of ethics], undertaken with the approval of the WVS Executive Council, [they] shall provide additional information on the survey in such detail that a fellow survey practitioner would be able to conduct a professional evaluation of the survey" (World Values Survey, n.d.-a).

4.3 Universe/Population

The population for this study is the universe of the WVS, which was defined as all people who are part of the adult population in the countries under study. *Adult* was most commonly defined to mean people who are 18 years and older in the majority of

the countries surveyed. The study is therefore reasonably inclusive of the world's population. It is not limited to a specific demographic.

4.4 Sampling Frame

A sampling frame is the set of the population under study who have a chance of being selected (Fowler, 2009), that is, it is the list of elements from which a sample is drawn (Blumberg, Cooper, & Schindler, 2008). Whilst the WVS survey attempts to get consistent and representative results from each country, due to logistical and practical reasons, the sampling frame in each country differed slightly; the details of which are fully documented and available from the WVS (World Values Survey, n.d.-b)

4.5 Unit of Analysis

According to Welman and Kruger (2001), units of analysis are described as members or elements of a population. The unit of analysis for this research was at the level of the individual.

4.6 Sampling

Sampling involves any procedure that draws conclusions based on measurements of a portion of the population. In other words, a sample is a subset from a larger population (Zikmund et al., 2012). If certain statistical procedures are followed, the researcher need not select every item in the population because the characteristics of a good sample should accurately reflect the population as a whole (Zikmund et al., 2012).

4.6.1 Probability Sampling

Probability sampling is used when you are able to obtain a full list of the population (Saunders & Lewis, 2012). It is an approach that selects elements from a population

such that the elements are selected by a random process, each element has a non-zero chance of being selected and the relative frequency with which an element is included in the sample is deducible (Affleck, 2010).

4.6.2 Non-Probability Sampling

When the entire population is not known, non-probability sampling techniques are used (Saunders & Lewis, 2012).

4.6.3 Quota Sampling

Quota sampling is a non-probability sampling technique. It is a method of sampling that specifies how many members of the sample should fall into specified categories (Morgan, 2008). It therefore ensures that the sample selected represents certain characteristics of the population that the researcher has chosen (Saunders & Lewis, 2012).

4.6.4 Primary Sampling Unit

A Primary Sampling Unit (PSU) refers to samples that are selected in the first stage of a multi-stage sample. They arise in samples where the elements are grouped into aggregates and the aggregates are used as the units in another sample (Lepkowski, 2008).

4.6.5 Probability Proportionate to Size

Probability Proportionate to Size (PPS) is a sampling method that produces self-weighted samples. It is used to sample elements that are in clusters or natural groupings that differ in size. The probability of a cluster being selected is dependent on the proportional distribution of its elements in the target population (Daniel, 2012).

4.6.6 WVS Sampling Method and Sample Size

According to the WVS, samples were drawn from the world's adult population. The minimum sample per country was 1,000 although larger samples were recommended where possible due to the, "effective sample size" (sample size net of design effects) being smaller than the actual sample size. In most countries, no upper age limit was imposed. The preferred method of sampling for WVS surveys is the full probability sample. However, due to the high cost in terms of finances, manpower and time, full probability samples might have been prohibitive in some cases (World Values Survey, 2012). As such sampling varied slightly between different countries. WVS allowed quota sampling provided that the following principles were strictly adhered to:

1. Selection of PSUs were probabilistic and preferably PPS.
2. Selection of first stage clusters within PSUs were probabilistic and preferably PPS.
3. Quota sampling could only be used within reasonably small sized clusters that were selected probabilistically.

Whether the sampling method was full probability or a combination of probability and quota, the minimum number of PSUs was 30. A design with less than 30 PSUs was not permissible (World Values Survey, n.d.-d).

4.6.7 Sampling Size and Method for this Study

Whilst the fifth wave aggregated file contains data for all the available waves, due to the fact that the most important survey question for this study regarding work values, "What is most important when looking for a job?" was only asked in the last three waves, only these waves were used in this study. (Refer to Appendix B for the exact phrasing of the question.) After the initial descriptive analysis was done, it was realised that due to the large sample, even small differences would show as being statistically significant. As *p*-values are directly affected by sample sizes, a statistically significant result can be obtained despite a small effect size as long as the sample is large enough (Lantz, 2012). With a large sample, even small differences will be flagged

as statistically significant and the goodness-of-fit test becomes sensitive to even very small, inconsequential departures from a distribution. This is known as a Type I error (declaring something as effect when in fact it is not) (Weiers, 2011). Alternatively, failing to reject a false null hypothesis is known as a Type II error. For a given sample size, decreasing the chance of a Type I error increases the chance of a Type II error and vice versa (Weiers, 2011).

In order not to fall victim to deflated *p*-values, various techniques can be used. One such method is to reduce the sample size by taking a random subset of the original sample and redoing the statistical analysis on this smaller sample. By adhering to a purely random selection of cases from the original database, each unit in the population has an equal and known chance of being selected and the new subsample should remain representative of the original sample (Zikmund, 2003). Alternatively, instead of relying solely on statistical significance, it is recommended that the researcher analyse the actual magnitude of the effect size or focus on the practical significance rather than the statistical significance. Whilst *p*-values do not scale up to very large sample sizes, confidence intervals do. Confidence intervals become more precise as the sample size grows (Lin, Lucas, & Shmuéli, in press). For the purpose of this study, the researcher followed the confidence interval method. Besides just looking at the sign and direction of the regression coefficients, the effect sizes and confidence intervals were analysed in detail and the practical significance of the findings are presented.

4.7 Variables

4.7.1 Demographics

Demographic information is statistical data that describes a population. Only a subset of the demographic data collected by the WVS was used in this study. These include gender (which was observed by the interviewer), relationship status, number of children and social class (which were reported by the respondents).

4.7.2 Work values

The existing literature defines and classifies work values in many different ways. There is no universal construct for work values; however, certain themes appear consistently throughout (Leuty & Hansen, 2011). The data from the WVS is the largest source of cross national public opinion and it is widely used across many disciplines. For the purposes of this study, work values are defined as per the WVS, where respondents were asked what was "most important to them when looking for a job". (Refer to Appendix B.) The most common approach used to categorise work values is into intrinsic and extrinsic values (Chu, 2008). There are two options for each category: "doing an important job" and "working with people you like" in the intrinsic category, and "a good income" and "a safe job with no risk" in the extrinsic category.

4.7.3 Life Satisfaction

The terms life satisfaction and happiness are often used interchangeably and can be defined as "the degree to which a person evaluates the overall quality of his present life-as-a-whole positively" (Veenhoven, 1997, p. 5). The term "life satisfaction" is used more commonly in literature as it is thought to better emphasise the subjective nature of the concept (Veenhoven, 1997). Despite various biases that can result from the subjective nature of the question, the most common method of determining and measuring a person's happiness is the use of a single, direct question in an interview questionnaire (Veenhoven, 1997). This was the method followed by the WVS. Respondents were asked to rate their overall life satisfaction from one to ten with one meaning dissatisfied and ten meaning satisfied. (Refer to Appendix B for the exact phrasing of the question.)

Table 4.1 displays the list of variables that were identified as being important to adequately test the six stated hypotheses (see Chapter 3). It also clarifies how each variable was defined.

Table 4.1: Definition of variables

The definition of the variables used in the hypotheses tested in this study.

Variable	Definition
Gender	A discrete value of male or female (by observation of the interviewer).
Wave	Time interval of the WVS (wave 3: 1994-1999, wave 4: 1999-2004, wave 5: 2005-2008).
Relationship Status	The current relationship status of the respondent. There were six possible values: married, living together as married, divorced, separated, widowed and single.
Social Class	In the opinion of the respondent. The respondents were asked to categorise themselves as: upper class, upper middle class, lower middle class, working class or lower class.
Number of Children	The number of children that the respondent has as reported by the interviewee. Values range from zero to eight (eight includes cases where the respondent has eight or more children).
Work Values	The respondents were asked to choose which of the following options is the most important when looking for a job: a good income; a safe job with no risk; working with people they like; doing an important job; doing something for the community.
Overall Life Satisfaction	The opinion of the respondents on their satisfaction with their lives. A scale of one to ten was used with one meaning that they are "completely dissatisfied" and ten meaning that they are "completely satisfied".

4.8 Statistical Analysis Method

This section outlines the theory underlying the statistical techniques used in the analysis of the data.

Both descriptive and inferential statistics were used.

4.8.1 Descriptive Statistics

Initially, descriptive statistics were used to summarise and describe the data as this is the easiest way to explore and understand the data (Saunders & Lewis, 2012).

4.8.1.1 Contingency Tables

The use of contingency tables or cross tabulations is a very useful method of summarisation where the number of people or items in each category is simply counted (Weiers, 2011). This tabular display gave a good overview of the data and made it easy to see under which categories most people fell. In other words, it provided a perspective of the variation in the data.

4.8.1.2 Graphs

A trend is the movement or change in direction of a variable over a period of time (Saunders & Lewis, 2012). A trend line graph is used to display time series data visually (Wegner, 2012). Whilst inferential statistical techniques would have allowed a much more rigorous assessment of trends, exploratory or descriptive statistics are a general step in exploring and understanding the data and was the simplest method of establishing whether the work values of people have been changing over time.

One hundred percent stacked bar graphs are useful to quickly see what percentage of a categorical variable falls into each group of another categorical variable.

4.8.2 Inferential Statistics

With inferential statistics, sometimes referred to as inductive statistics, the researcher goes beyond the mere description of data and is able to arrive at inferences regarding the phenomena for which sample data were obtained (Weiers, 2011).

To analyse the data, the following statistical techniques were employed:

4.8.2.1 One-Way ANOVA

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) is used on scaled (numerical) data that is split into three or more independent groups. It determines the probability of the differences between the values in the groups occurring by chance (Saunders & Lewis, 2012). The use of

ANOVA assumes the use of a significantly large sample size and under the central limit theorem that the distribution of all possible averages would conform to a normal distribution.

4.8.2.2 Levene's Test

Equality of variance is an assumption for some parametric (normally distributed data) tests such as the ANOVA and t-tests. In statistics, the Levene's test is an inferential statistic used to assess the equality of variance calculated for two or more groups. It tests for homoscedasticity, more commonly referred to as "homogeneity of variance", which means that it tests for the null hypothesis that population variances are equal. It is recommended over other tests as it is fairly robust even when the underlying distributions deviate significantly from the normal distribution (Sheng, 2008).

4.8.2.3 Brown-Forsythe

The Brown-Forsythe test is a statistical test that performs an ANOVA on a transformation of the dependent variable. It is a modification of Levene's test and can be used to compare independent normal means under heteroscedasticity or heterogeneity of variance (Sheng, 2008).

4.8.2.4 Tamhane *Post Hoc* Test

If more than two groups are analysed, the one-way ANOVA does not specifically indicate which pairs of groups are significantly different (Siegel, 2011). *Post hoc* tests are applied to determine such pairs. There are many *post hoc* tests. The most appropriate choice depends on characteristics of the data. The Tamhane test is suitable when group sizes and variances are unequal.

4.8.2.5 Logistic Regression

A range of regression techniques have been developed to deal with categorical dependent variables including discriminant analysis and logistic regression. Of these, logistic regression was selected for two reasons. Firstly, logistic regression is easier to use in *IBM SPSS Statistics* (the analysis software package that the researcher used in this study) than discriminant analysis when there is a mixture of numerical and categorical independent variables because the dummy variables are generated automatically (Burns & Burns, 2008). Secondly, logistic regression also requires fewer assumptions to be met and is statistically more robust than discriminant analysis (Burns & Burns, 2008).

Logistic regression is used to determine the impact of one or more predictors or independent variables and to predict membership of the outcome or dependent variable. Unlike linear regression, which cannot deal with dependent variables that are categorical, logistic regression can be used when the dependent variable is:

1. Dichotomous – having only two categories
2. Unordered polytomous – nominal with three or more categories
3. Ordered polytomous – ordinal scale variable with three or more categories (Menard, 2008).

4.8.2.6 Chi-Squared Test for Independence of Association

The chi-squared test is used for categorical data (Saunders & Lewis, 2012). It is based on frequency count data. It compares a set of observed frequencies obtained from a random sample to a set of expected frequencies that describe the null hypothesis. The chi-squared statistic measures by how much the observed and expected frequencies differ. If this difference is small, the null hypothesis is likely to be accepted. Conversely, a large difference is likely to result in the null hypothesis being rejected (Wegner, 2012). The chi-squared test for independence of association establishes whether two nominal random variables are related (Keller, 2008). A hypothesis test establishes whether the association observed is purely by chance or whether it is a

statistically genuine association between the variables in the populations from where the sample was drawn (Wegner, 2012). The chi-squared test does not indicate the strength of the relationship.

4.9 Analysis Procedure

This section describes the procedure that was followed for the analysis.

4.9.1 Data Preparation

Usually, when data are initially captured, they are often 'dirty' in that they contain typographic errors, out-of-range values and outliers (Wegner, 2012). The fifth wave aggregated WVS file which was used for the analysis was already cleaned by the WVS. As such, no data cleaning was necessary.

The descriptive statistical analysis showed that the option of "Doing something for the community" was only asked in the first wave being analysed. It only accounted for 0.49 percent of responses and was therefore not asked in subsequent years. Thus, a subset of data that excluded the records of the respondents that answered 'Doing something for the community' was used for the inferential statistics.

4.9.2 Hypothesis Testing

Table 4.2 is an extension of Table 3.1 and reflects the statistical method that was used to test each of the stated hypotheses.

Table 4.2: Hypothesis tests

This table shows the variables and the statistical technique used to test each of the six hypotheses.

Hypothesis Number	Variable	Relation To:	Analysis
1	Wave	Work Values	Logistic Regression
2	Relationship Status		Logistic Regression
3	Number of Children		Logistic Regression
4	Social Class		Logistic Regression
5	Gender		Logistic Regression
6	Work Value	Overall Life Satisfaction	Brown-Forsythe

The analysis techniques were selected by considering, amongst others, the measurement scale of each variable. The chi-squared test would have been suitable to test hypotheses one, two and five, due to the variables being nominal in nature. However, this would only have showed whether a relationship existed; it would not have indicated the strength or direction of the relationship (Keller, 2008). Therefore, a multinomial logistic regression was used to test the independent variables (gender, wave and life factors) in relation to the dependent variable (work values); the chi-squared test was not used as a main test but only as the likelihood ratio test as part of the regression. Logistic regression was appropriate because the variable, work value, is unordered polytomous. Multinomial logistic regression is used when the dependent variable is nominal and for which there are two or more categories. It is used to estimate the probability that a particular outcome will occur (Keller, 2008). The baseline logit model was used to predict the probabilities of the different possible work values given the independent variables of gender, wave and life factors. The

baseline logit model can be viewed as the set of binary logistic regression models that simultaneously fit the response categories (Anderson, & Rutkowski, 2008). As part of testing the validity of the model, the researcher checked for multicollinearity. Multicollinearity is a problem that occurs when some of the independent variables are correlated with each other (Keller, 2008). This makes it difficult to determine which of the variables is responsible for the observed effect and results in large sampling errors and poorly estimated individual regression coefficients (Siegel, 2011).

Initially, the one-way ANOVA was used to test whether a relationship exists between work values and overall life satisfaction because there was only one independent variable (work values) and one dependent variable (overall life satisfaction). However, while the sample sizes within groups were sufficiently large and the variation between groups was not that big, due to the range in group sizes, a variation of the one-way ANOVA, namely the Brown-Forsythe test, was used instead. The Brown-Forsythe test is preferred to the Levene test when there is unequal sample size (Sheng, 2008).

4.10 Limitations

The WVS provided relevant data needed to conduct the study. However, the researcher did not have control over the design of the instrument. The construct of a work value is somewhat sketchy (there is no universally accepted paradigm). As such, the WVS used its own custom questionnaire which is not completely exhaustive of all facets of work values. It did not specifically ask respondents how important status (in the form of prestige, power and authority) is to them when looking for a job, which is one of the four fundamental types of work values according to Jin and Rounds (2012). It did, however, cover the main categories of intrinsic and extrinsic explored by the literature on work values.

Due to the majority of the variables being nominal in nature, a logistic regression was used. An ordinal dependent variable would have allowed for other techniques such as a multiple linear regression. If respondents had been asked to rank their work values, a Pearson correlation could have been used.

The data analysis was limited by the data available in the WVS and is therefore only as accurate as the data in the WVS. The fifth wave aggregated file of the WVS was used which contained data from 1981 to 2008. However, due to the survey question, "What is most important to you when looking for a job?" only being asked in the last three waves, only the last three waves were used in this study, which contained data from 1994 to 2008. This study does not cover the most recent data, as the sixth wave containing the most recent data will only be available from the 1 April 2014 (World Values Survey, n.d.-c).

5. RESULTS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter will present the results based on the data which were collected by the World Values Survey (WVS) and provide commentary on the descriptive and analytical statistics provided by the data.

The demographic data for each of the three waves analysed and the results of the statistical test for each hypothesis will be discussed in detail. A summary of the final conclusion of each hypothesis will also be presented.

5.2 Description of the Sample Demographics

A total of 219,011 respondents from 87 societies across the last three waves are included in the analysis. The sample consists of 78,678 respondents in wave 3 (1994-1999), 61,062 respondents in wave 4 (1999-2004) and 79,271 in wave 5 (2005-2007). Demographic information collected included gender, relationship status, number of children, social class and age. The distribution of the sample by demographic classifications is presented in Appendix C.

5.2.1 Relationship Status

Respondents across all countries were asked to choose between six relationship status options, namely: “married”, “living together as married”, “divorced”, “separated”, “widowed” and “single/never married” with the exception of Israel and Sweden in the 1999-2004 wave. Only three options for relationship status were asked in Israel in 2001, namely “married”, “single/never married” and “divorced, separated or widowed”. “Living apart but steady relationship’ was only asked in Sweden in 1999-2000. Due to the large sample size and the fact these groups only accounted for 0.3% of the 1999-2004 wave (wave 4), these inconsistencies are deemed negligible and the data was included in the analysis.

Across all three waves, the majority of respondents are reported as being married (59.9%, 59.1% and 55.2% respectively across the three waves). About a quarter of the respondents are single with the rest of the respondents split between the remaining categories.

5.2.2 Parental Status and Number of Children

Approximately 70% of all respondents are parents. This proportion is fairly consistent across all three waves.

The number of children that respondents reported ranges from zero to eight, with eight including those respondents who have more than eight children. The majority of respondents have between one and two children. The second largest category is those respondents who have no children. Very few respondents (less than 10%) have five or more children.

5.2.3 Social Class

In the survey, class is defined by the opinion of the respondent based on the selection of choices in the survey. Most respondents classified themselves as being lower middle class and working class. A smaller proportion of people said that they are upper middle class or lower class and very few people (less than 2%) consider themselves to be upper class.

5.2.4 Gender

The split between men and women is relatively even with minimally more women than men (between 1% to 2% more women than men).

5.2.5 Age

In the majority of countries, only people 18 years and older were surveyed, however, due to the minor differences in the sampling frames of the different countries, 1.1 % of the respondents were between the ages of 15 and 17. (In some societies, people younger than 18 are considered adults.) Approximately 60% of respondents are below the age of 45.

5.3 Analysis

5.3.1 Descriptive Analysis

5.3.1.1 Work Values over Time

Work values reported by survey respondents have remained fairly constant over the last three waves. The most notable change has been a marginal increase in the number of respondents who value a safe job with no risk. Figure 5.1 shows how the relative importance of work values has changed over the last three waves. (Supplementary statistical analyses can be viewed in Appendix D.)

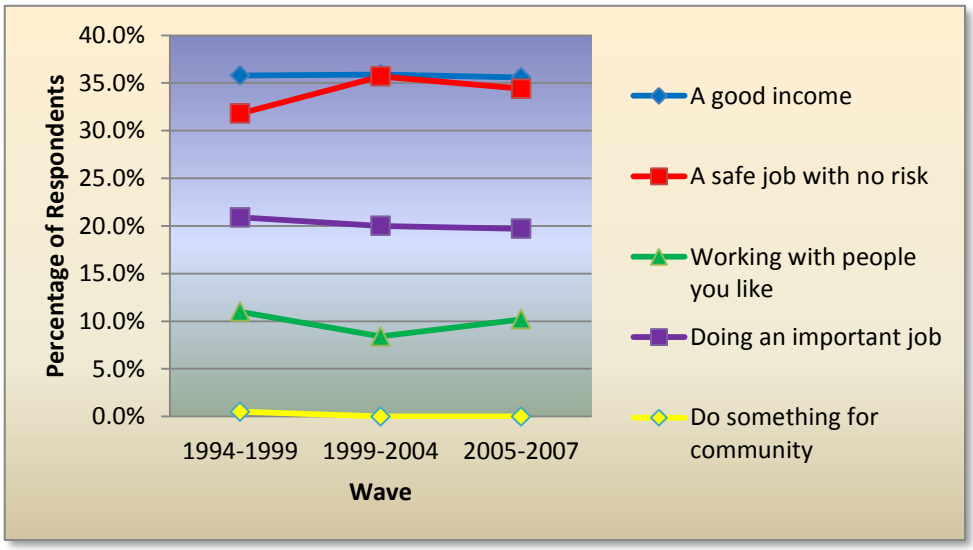

Figure 5.1: Work values over time

This graph depicts the change in importance of work values over the last three waves. It shows that work values have remained relatively constant.

5.3.1.2 Social Class in relation to Work Values

Figure 5.2 shows that there appears to be a direct relationship between social class and work values. The lower the social class, the more likely the person is to value either a stable, risk-free job or a job that pays well. As people get wealthier and move up the social class ranks, they begin to place a greater emphasis on doing an important or meaningful job. The exception to this is the upper class whose work values appear to emulate those of the lower middle class. Despite being in a higher class to the upper middle class, the upper class place a bigger emphasis on high paying jobs than the upper middle class, as well as less emphasis on doing an important job.

Figure 5.2: Work values by social class

This figure depicts work values broken down by social class. It shows that with the exception of the upper class, the higher the social class, the lower the emphasis placed on extrinsic values and the higher the emphasis placed on intrinsic values.

5.3.1.3 Work Values over Time by Gender

Men consistently emphasised placing the greatest value on jobs that have high incomes compared to women, whereas women consistently valued working with people who they like and doing an important job more often than men, across all three waves (Refer to Table D.1 in Appendix D).

Figure 5.3 shows that in the first two waves, men are found to value a safe and risk free job more than women; however, in the last wave women overtook them. Averaging the counts across all three waves shows that 3.2% more men than women value a good income and a slightly higher percentage of women (10.9%) than men (9.4%) value working with people who they like. However, the values given for men and women's work values follow each other relatively closely and no major differences are evident.

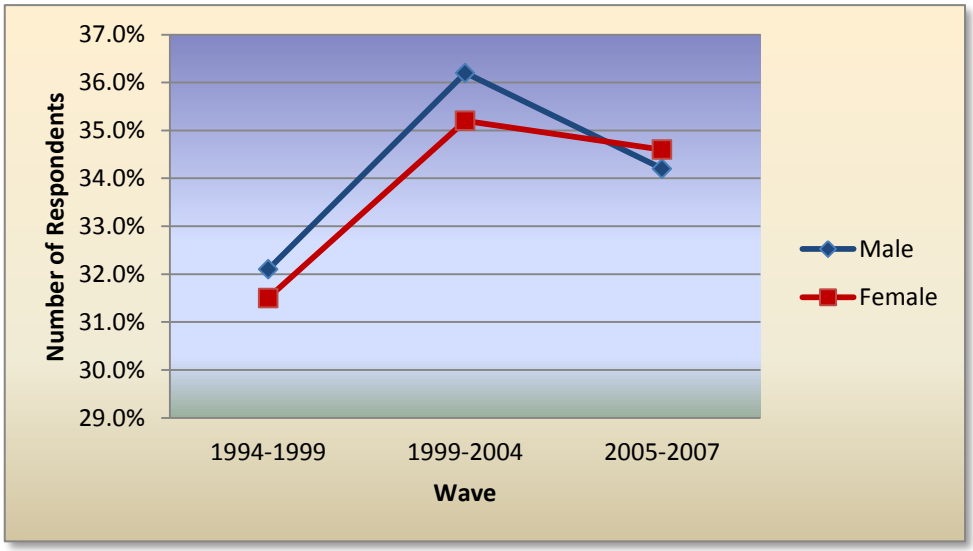

Figure 5.3: Graphical representation of respondents that value safe job with no risk split by gender

In the last wave, women overtook men when it comes to valuing a safe job with no risk. However, the two lines follow each other relatively closely and no major differences are evident.

5.3.1.4 Overall Life Satisfaction in relation to Work Values

Table 5.1: Life Satisfaction by Work Value

This table shows the descriptive statistics (number of respondents, means, standard deviations, minimums and maximums) for overall life satisfaction broken down per work value.

	n	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
A good income	26,105	6.40	2.350	1	10
A safe job with no risk	25,237	6.69	2.299	1	10
Working with people you like	7,519	7.02	2.185	1	10
Doing an important job	14,539	7.27	2.083	1	10
Total	73,400	6.73	2.288	1	10

The descriptive statistics are displayed in Figure 5.1. By inspection of the mean values, the people who are the most satisfied with their lives are those who value doing an important job. The second most satisfied people are those who value working with people who they like and the third most satisfied people are those who value a safe job with no risk. The people who are the least satisfied with their lives are those who place the highest emphasis on a good income.

The biggest variance is found in the group that values a good income whereas the smallest variance is in the group that values doing an important job.

5.3.2 Inferential Statistics

5.3.2.1 Multinomial Logistic Regression

A multinomial logistic regression was conducted to analyse for effects that gender and life factors may have on work values. Wave, relationship status, number of children, social class, and gender were investigated as predictors.

5.3.2.1.1 Analysis of the Model

The baseline comparison group for the model is those who selected "doing an important job" as the most important work value from amongst those offered.

Table 5.2 shows the model fitting information.

Table 5.2: Model fitting information

The likelihood ratio test shows the accuracy of the model (whether it fits significantly better than an empty model).

Model	Model Fitting Criteria	Likelihood Ratio Tests		
	-2 Log Likelihood	Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Intercept Only	21,517.704			
Final	17,267.215	4,250.489	30	.000

The likelihood ratio chi-squared test shows that at least one of the regression coefficients of the potential predictors is not equal to zero in the model. The likelihood ratio chi-squared of 4,250.49 with *p*-value ≤ 0.05 tells us that the model as a whole fits significantly better than an empty model (i.e. a model with no predictors). Therefore, the existence of a relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variable is supported.

Table 5.3: Likelihood ratio tests

The likelihood ratio tests determine whether each variable adds to the accuracy of the model. A *p*-value (Sig.) ≤ 0.05 indicate that at a 95% confidence interval that is indeed the case.

Effect	Model Fitting Criteria	Likelihood Ratio Tests		
	-2 Log Likelihood	Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Intercept	17,267.215[a]	.000	0	
Social Class	20,007.500	2,740.285	3	.000
Number of Children	17,419.651	152.436	3	.000
Gender	17,431.389	164.174	3	.000
Wave	17,595.475	328.260	6	.000
Relationship Status	17,645.251	378.036	15	.000

The chi-squared statistic is the difference in -2 log-likelihoods between the final model and a reduced model. The reduced model is formed by omitting an effect from the final model. The null hypothesis is that all parameters of that effect are 0.

a. This reduced model is equivalent to the final model because omitting the effect does not increase the degrees of freedom.

Table 5.3 shows that the *p*-values for all five independent variables (wave, relationship status, number of children, gender and social class) are less than 0.05 and as such contribute significantly to the full model. That is, the likelihood ratio test shows us that all the variables have a significant chi-squared which indicates that if they were dropped from the model the overall fit would be significantly reduced. Therefore, at a 5% level of significance, there is strong enough evidence to reject the null hypotheses that all of the *b* coefficients associated with work values were equal to zero for each of Hypotheses 1 – 5. Differences between observed and expected work values are not purely due to chance, but due to differences in waves, relationship status, number of children, gender and social class. It can be concluded, at the 95% confidence level, that there is a relationship between a wave, relationship status, number of children, gender, social class and work values.

Table 5.4 displays the detailed statistical output of the multinomial logistic regression. It shows the comparison between the categories within each variable and the reference categories and whether the relationship is statistically significant.

A standard error for the *b* coefficients that is larger than 2.0 indicates numerical problems including one or more of: multicollinearity among independent variables; zero cells for a dummy-coded independent variable because all the subjects have the same value for the variable; and "complete separation", whereby the groups in the dependent event variable can be perfectly separated by scores on one of the independent variables. Table 5.4 shows that none of the independent variables in this analysis has a standard error larger than 2.0.

Table 5.4: Parameter estimates

The detailed statistical output of the multinomial logistic regression testing the predictors of work values.

First choice if looking for a job[a]		B	Std. Error	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)	95% Confidence Interval for Exp(B)	
								Lower Bound	Upper Bound
A good income	Intercept	-.709	.029	584.383	1	.000			
	Social Class	.535	.007	2,290.303	1	.000	1.423	1.403	1.444
	Number of children	.047	.005	88.481	1	.000	1.048	1.038	1.059
	Gender = Men	.119	.014	69.967	1	.000	1.126	1.095	1.158
	Gender = Women	0[b]	.	.	0	.	.	.	
	Wave = 3	-.082	.016	27.171	1	.000	.921	.893	.950
	Wave = 4	-.036	.019	3.540	1	.060	.964	.929	1.002
	Wave = 5	0[b]	.	.	0	.	.	.	.
	Married	.112	.020	31.323	1	.000	1.118	1.075	1.163
	Living together as married	-.218	.032	45.974	1	.000	.804	.755	.857
	Divorced	-.176	.040	19.654	1	.000	.839	.776	.907
	Separated	-.238	.053	20.134	1	.000	.788	.710	.875
	Widowed	.169	.036	22.013	1	.000	1.184	1.103	1.270
	Single/Never married	0[b]	.	.	0	.	.	.	.
A safe job with no risk	Intercept	-.657	.030	493.641	1	.000			
	Social Class	.324	.007	1,905.500	1	.000	1.383	1.363	1.404
	Number of children	.061	.005	146.476	1	.000	1.063	1.052	1.073
	Gender = Men	.076	.014	28.481	1	.000	1.079	1.049	1.110
	Gender = Women	0[b]	.	.	0	.	.	.	.
	Wave = 3	-.198	.016	154.793	1	.000	.820	.795	.846
	Wave = 4	-.050	.019	6.654	1	.010	.951	.916	.989
	Wave = 5	0[b]	.	.	0	.	.	.	.
	Married	.150	.020	54.772	1	.000	1.162	1.116	1.209
	Living together as married	.003	.032	.101	1	.922	1.003	.943	1.067
	Divorced	-.231	.041	32.044	1	.000	.794	.733	.860
	Separated	-.139	.053	6.881	1	.009	.870	.784	.965
	Widowed	.187	.036	26.568	1	.000	1.206	1.123	1.295
	Single/Never married	0[b]	.	.	0	.	.	.	.
Working with people you like	Intercept	-1.193	.040	894.288	1	.000			
	Social Class	.171	.010	287.369	1	.000	1.187	1.164	1.211
	Number of children	.037	.007	29.430	1	.000	1.038	1.024	1.211
	Gender = Men	-.088	.020	20.058	1	.000	.916	.881	.952
	Gender = Women	0[b]	.	.	0	.	.	.	.
	Wave = 3	.007	.021	.110	1	.740	1.007	.966	1.050
	Wave = 4	-.194	.028	49.628	1	.000	.824	.780	.869
	Wave = 5	0[b]	.	.	0	.	.	.	.
	Married	-.052	.027	3.541	1	.060	.950	.900	1.002
	Living together as married	-.047	.043	1.209	1	.271	.954	.878	1.037
	Divorced	-.181	.054	11.089	1	.001	.834	.750	.928
	Separated	-.238	.074	10.404	1	.001	.788	.682	.911
	Widowed	.179	.049	14.251	1	.000	1.196	1.090	1.312
	Single/Never married	0[b]	.	.	0	.	.	.	.

a. The reference category is: Doing a good job.

b. This parameter is set to zero because it is redundant due it being a reference parameter.

5.3.2.1.2 Hypothesis 1 – Work values have been changing over time

The probability of the Wald statistic (27.171) for valuing a good income relative to doing an important job for the third wave is less than 0.05 and is therefore statistically significant. However, the Wald statistic (3.540) for valuing a good income relative to doing an important job for the fourth wave has a *p*-value of 0.06 which is greater than 0.05 and is therefore found not to be statistically significant from zero. The multinomial logit of -0.082 implies that people were less likely to value a good income over doing an important job in wave 3 (1994 – 1999) than they were in wave 5 (2005-2007). The relative risk that a person valued a good income over doing an important job in wave 3 is 0.964 times (decrease of 3.6 percent) the odds in wave 5.

The multinomial logits of -0.198 and -0.050 imply that people were generally less likely to value a safe job over doing an important job in wave 3 (1994 – 2004) than they were in wave 5 (2005 - 2007). The odds that a person valued a safe job with no risk over doing an important job in wave 3 is 0.820 times (decrease of 18 percent) the odds in wave 5 and the odds that a person valued a safe job with no risk over doing an important job in wave 4 is 0.951 times (decrease of 4.9 percent) the odds in wave 5. With *p*-values (0.00 and 0.01) that are less than 0.05, these probabilities are statistically significant.

For the comparison between valuing working with people who you like relative to doing an important job, the Wald statistic for the predictor wave 3 is 0.11 with an associated *p*-value of 0.74, which is greater than the alpha level of 0.05 and is therefore not statistically different. The Wald statistic for the predictor wave 4 is 49.628 with an associated *p*-value that is less than 0.05 and is therefore statistically different. The multinomial logit of -0.194 implies that people placed more emphasis on working with people who they like than doing an important job in wave 3 (1994-1999) than they did in 2005-2007. The odds that a person valued working with people who they like more than doing an important job in wave 3 is 1.007 (increase of 0.7 percent) times the odds in wave 5.

Some of these results are statistically significant due to the large sample size. However the effect size shows that these differences are numerically small and for practical purposes are mainly insignificant.

5.3.2.1.3 Hypothesis 2 – There is a relationship between a person's relationship status and their work values.

The results indicate that married and widowed people are more likely to value money over doing an important job. The odds that people value a good income are 1.118 (increase of 11.8 percent) and 1.184 (increase of 18.4 percent) times doing an important job for married and widowed people respectively. However, people who are living together, divorced or separated are less likely to value money over doing an important job. The odds that people value a good income are 0.804 (decrease of 19.6 percent), 0.839 (decrease of 16.1 percent) and 0.788 (decrease of 21.2 percent) times doing an important job for people who are living together, divorced and separated respectively. The probability of the Wald statistic shows that these relationships are statistically significant.

There is no statistically significant relationship between people who are living together and a preference for having a safe job with no risk over doing an important job relative to single people. There is a statistically significant relationship between being married, divorced, separated and widowed and a preference for having a safe job with no risk over doing an important job relative to single people. Married and widowed people are more likely to value having a safe job with no risk over doing an important job. The odds that a married or widowed person will value a safe job with no risk is 1.162 (increase of 16.2 percent) and 1.206 (increase of 20.6 percent) times doing an important job respectively. Divorced and separated people are less likely to value a safe job with no risk over doing an important job. The odds that divorced and separated people will value a safe job with no risk are 0.794 (decrease of 20.6 percent) and 0.874 (decrease of 12.6) times doing an important job respectively.

There is no statistically significant relationship between being married or living together and having a preference for working with people who you like to doing an important job relative to single people. However, there is a significant relationship between divorced, separated and widowed people compared to single people when it comes to valuing working with people who they like rather than doing an important job. The odds for people who are divorced and separated are 0.834 (decrease of 16.6 percent) and 0.788 (decrease of 21.2 percent) times less likely to value working with people they like than doing an important job. The odds for people who are widowed are 1.196 (increase of 19.6 percent) times more likely to value working with people they like than doing an important job.

5.3.2.1.4 Hypothesis 3 – There is a relationship between the number of children that a person has and their work values.

To test this hypothesis, the impact of number of children on work values was investigated. The results indicate that the relationship between the number of children that a person has and all three work values of a good income, a safe job with no risk and working with people you like were statistically significant when compared to doing an important job.

If all other variables are held constant, for each additional child that a person has, the multinomial log-odds of preferring a job that pays well over an important job would be expected to increase by 0.047 units and the relative risk would be expected to increase by a factor of 1.048 (increase of 4.8 percent). That is, for each additional child that a person has, the greater the likelihood becomes that they will value a good income over doing an important job.

Assuming everything else remains the same, for each additional child that a person has, the multinomial log-odds of wanting a safe job with no risk over an important job would be expected to increase by 0.061 units and the relative risk would be expected to increase by a factor of 1.063 (increase of 6.3 percent). That is, for each additional

child that a person has, the greater the likelihood that they will value a safe job with no risk over doing an important job.

For each additional child that a person has, the relative risk would be expected to increase by a factor of 1.038 (increase of 3.8 percent) if all other variables are held constant. This indicates that for each additional child, the likelihood that a person will care more about working with people who they like than about doing an important job increases.

5.3.2.1.5 Hypothesis 4 – There is a relationship between a person's social class and their work values.

The estimated multinomial logistic regression coefficient for a person who is one class level lower than another person is 0.353 units higher for valuing a good income relative to valuing doing an important job, given all other predictor variables in the model are held constant. The relative risk of valuing a good income over doing an important job give is expected to increase by a factor of 1.423 (increase of 42.3 percent) for each progressively lower class level. More generally, we could say that the lower the social class that people are part of, the greater the chance that they will opt for jobs that pays better over jobs that they perceive to be meaningful.

The same applies to valuing a safe job with no risk. The multinomial odds of valuing a safe job with no risk relative to doing an important job would be expected to increase by 0.324 units and the relative risk is expected to increase by a factor of 1.383 (increase of 38.3 percent) for each progressively lower class level. People in lower classes are expected to prefer a safe, risk-free job over doing an important job.

The multinomial odds of preferring to work with people who you like versus doing an important job are also positive (0.171). Therefore, people in lower social classes are more likely to choose to work with people who they like than they are to choose to do an important job. The relative risk would only increase by a factor of 1.187 (increase of 18.7 percent).

The probability of the Wald statistic is less than 0.05 for all three of the above cases meaning that the probabilities are statistically significant. The results above show that the lower the social class that a person is part of, the odds of them valuing money is the greatest, followed by valuing a safe job with no risk and lastly working with people who they like.

5.3.2.1.6 Hypothesis 5 - There is a relationship between a person's gender and their work values.

The estimated multinomial logistic regression coefficient for men relative to women is 0.119 units higher for valuing a good income relative to valuing doing an important job, given all other predictor variables in the model are held constant. In other words, males are more likely than females to value a good income over doing an important job. The relative risk ratio of 1.126 implies that men are 12.6 percent (1.126 – 1.0 = 0.126) more likely than women to value a good income over doing an important job. This probability is statistically significant since the probability of the Wald statistic (69.967) for the variable gender is 0.000, which is less than 0.05.

The multinomial logit of 0.076 implies that men are more likely than women to value a safe job with no risk over doing an important job. The odds that a man will value a safe job with no risk over doing an important job is 1.079 times (increase of 7.9 percent) the odds that a woman will. With a *p*-value that is less than 0.05, this is statistically significant.

The multinomial logit is 0.88 units lower for men valuing working with people who they like than women. In other words, women are more likely than men to value working with people who they like than doing an important job. The odds that a man will value working with people whom he likes over doing an important job is 0.916 times (decrease of 8.4 percent) the odds that a woman will. With a *p*-value that is less than 0.05, this is statistically significant.

5.3.2.1.7 Summary of Multinomial Logistic Regression Results

Table 5.5 summarises the significant predictors of the multinomial logistic regression. The populated cells indicate that the null hypothesis was rejected and that it is a statistically significant relationship.

Table 5.5: Summary of the multinomial logistic regression

This table is a summary of the statistically significant predictors of work values. The blanks cells indicate that the relationship is not statistically significant.

	A good income	A safe job with no risk	Working with people you like
Male	0.119 (0.014)	0.076 (0.014)	-0.088 (0.020)
Wave 3	-0.082 (0.016)	-0.198 (0.016)	
Wave 4		-0.050 (0.019)	-0.194 (0.28)
Married	0.112 (0.020)	0.150 (0.020)	
Living together as married	-0.218 (0.032)		
Divorced	-0.176 (0.040)	-0.231 (0.041)	-0.181 (0.054)
Separated	-0.238 (0.053)	-0.139 (0.053)	-0.238 (0.074)
Widowed	0.169 (0.036)	0.187 (0.036)	0.179 (0.047)
Social class	0.353 (0.007)	0.324 (0.007)	0.171 (0.010)
Number of children	0.047 (0.005)	0.061 (0.005)	0.037 (0.007)
n	58,535	55,600	16,232

Total n = 183,207

Notes: Reference category for the equation is single men who value doing an important job.

Standard errors are in parentheses.

The multinomial logistic regression shows that social class is the best predictor of work values. Table 5.5 shows that people who consider themselves to be in higher social classes are more likely to value doing an important job and working with people who they like than having a safe job with no risk or a good income. Whilst the other predictors were statistically significant at the p = 0.05 level, their effect sizes were relatively small. Married and widowed people appear to place a greater emphasis on

stability in the form of a stable job with a decent salary than those who are single, divorced or separated, who in turn are more likely to value having an important job. Relative to women, men are more likely to value money and having a safe job over working with people who they like and doing an important job than women, and are less likely than women to value working with people who they like.

5.3.2.2 Brown-Forsythe

5.3.2.2.1 Hypothesis 6 - There is a relationship between a person's work values and their overall life satisfaction.

Before doing an analysis of variance (ANOVA), Levene's test was used to assess the homoscedasticity of the sample. This is important because the one-way ANOVA assumes homogeneity of variances.

Table 5.6: Test of homogeneity of variance for satisfaction with your life

This table displays the statistical output for the Levene test which shows that the variances are heteroscedastic.

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
190.399	3	73,396	.000

Table 5.6 shows that the significance of the test (*p*-value) is less than 0.001, which is less than the critical value of 0.5. Therefore we can conclude that the variances are significantly different. This means that one of the assumptions of the ANOVA has been violated. However, Pallant (2010) notes that analysis of variances tests are reasonably robust to violations of this assumption, provided that the size of groups is reasonably similar. As a rule of thumb, Pallant (2010) indicates that if the ratio of the largest group divided by the smallest group is greater than 1.5 then consideration should be given towards the calculation of an alternative F-ratio that would be robust when the assumption of homogeneity of variance has been violated. Table 5.1 reveals that this is indeed the case, with a ratio of 26,105/7,519=3.47. Field (2009) proposes the use of the Brown and Forsythe F-ratio as an alternative. By weighting the group variances, not by their sample size, but by the inverse of their sample sizes, the impact of large

samples with large variance is reduced. The result of the Brown-Forsythe test for equality of means is shown in Table 5.7.

Table 5.7: Brown-Forsyth test of equality of means for satisfaction with your life

This shows the results of the Brown-Forsyth test. The *p*-value (Sig.) is ≤ 0.05 signifying that there is a statistically significant difference in the means of overall life satisfaction between people whose work values differ.

	Statistic [a]	df1	df2	Sig.
Brown-Forsythe	523.231	3	51,639.091	0.000

a. Asymptotic F distributed.

The test of whether the group means are the same is represented by the Brown-Forsythe adjusted F-ratio. The value of this ratio is 523.231. The final column labelled *Sig*. indicates how likely it is that an F-ratio of at least that size would have occurred if there were no differences in means. *Sig.* represents the *p*-value which is 0.000. At a 95% level of significance, there is strong enough evidence to reject the null hypothesis. There is a statistically significant difference in the means of overall life satisfaction between the four work values. It can be concluded that the differences between the means are not likely due to chance and are probably due to differences in work values. The results suggest that the average overall life-satisfaction of people who value a good income, a safe job with no risk, working with people who they like and doing an important job are not all equal, but they do not tell us which means differ from each other. In order to determine which means differ, we need to further analyse the data with *post hoc* tests.

As such, it is appropriate to inspect the results of the *post hoc* Tamhane test which is suitable when group sizes and variances are unequal.

Table 5.8: Tamhane test - multiple comparisons

A pairwise comparison of overall life-satisfaction means between work values.

(I) First choice, if looking for a job	(J) First choice, if looking for a job	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
A good income	A safe job with no risk	-.290*	.021	.000	-.34	-.24
	Working with people you like	-.617*	.029	.000	-.69	-.53
	Doing an important job	-.870*	.023	.000	-.93	-.81
A safe job with no risk	A good income	.290*	.021	.000	.24	.34
	Working with people you like	-.327*	.029	.000	-.40	-.25
	Doing an important job	-.580*	.023	.000	-.64	-.52
Working with people you like	A good income	.617*	.029	.000	.54	.69
	A safe job with no risk	.237*	.029	.000	.25	.40
	Doing an important job	-.253*	.031	.000	-.33	-.17
Doing an important job	A good income	.870*	.023	.000	.81	.93
	A safe job with no risk	.580*	.023	.000	.52	.64
	Working with people you like	.253*	.031	.000	.17	.33

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Table 5.8 shows a pairwise comparison between work values. The Tamhane test suggests that all the groups vary from one another (Sig = 0.000 which is lower than the Sig. level (*p*-value) of 0.05). The largest difference in the means is between a good income and doing an important job. People who choose jobs that they believe are important are, on average, the most satisfied with their lives, followed by those who choose to work with people who they like, then people who choose to do safe jobs with no risk and the people who are the least satisfied with their lives are those who place the biggest emphasis on jobs with a good income.

5.4 Summary of Results

Hypothesis 1: Work values have been changing over time.

The last three waves have seen an increase in the number of people who value a safe job with no risk.

The percentage of people who place the greatest emphasis on doing an important job has decreased over the last three waves.

Hypothesis 2: There is a relationship between a person's relationship status and their work values.

Married and widowed people are more likely to value money over doing an important job compared to single people.

People who are living together, divorced or separated are less likely to value money over doing an important job compared to single people.

Married and widowed people are more likely to value a safe job with no risk over doing an important job compared to single people.

Divorced and separated people are less likely to value a safe job with no risk over doing an important job compared to single people.

Divorced and separated people are less likely to value working with people who they like over doing and important job compared to single people.

Widows are more likely to value working with people who they like over doing an important job compared to single people.

Hypothesis 3: There is a relationship between the number of children that a person has and their work values.

For each additional child that a person has, the greater the likelihood that they will value a good paying job, a risk-free job or working with people who they like over doing an important job.

Hypothesis 4: There is a relationship between a person's social class and their work values.

Lower social classes increase the likelihood that people will value a safe and risk-free job with a good income over doing an important job.

Lower social classes decrease the likelihood that people will value working with people who they like over doing an important job.

Hypothesis 5: There is a relationship between gender and work values.

Compared to women, men are more likely to value a good income and a safe job with no risk over doing an important job.

Compared to men, women are more likely to value working with people who they like over doing an important job.

Hypothesis 6: The overall perceived life satisfaction of people with different work values is not equal.

The average life satisfaction of people who value doing an important job are the highest, followed by people who value having colleagues who they like, then people who value a safe job with no risk and lastly, people who value jobs with a good income.

6. DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

This chapter discusses the results presented in Chapter 5 in light of the theory described in the literature review in Chapter 2.

The aim of this research is to determine the relationships between time (wave), life factors, work values and life satisfaction and whether these differ between the genders. The first section of the analysis examines the variables that may influence work values. The second section demonstrates the connection between work values and overall life satisfaction.

The discussion follows the same order as the hypotheses presented in Chapter 3 with gender differences discussed across all hypotheses.

6.1 Hypothesis 1: Work Values and Time

6.1.1 Extrinsic and Intrinsic Rewards

Work values are thought to reflect the cultural, societal and structural changes in the economy (Gahan & Abeysekera, 2009; Kalleberg & Marsden, 2013; Parry & Urwin, 2011). The many changes that have occurred over the last few decades such as liberalisation of gender roles, individualisation and economic restructuring suggest that work values could have changed accordingly over this time (Bakker & Karsten, 2013). According to Kalleberg and Marsden (2013), different generations have different expectations and preferences. Their study showed that there is an upward trend in the value placed on extrinsic rewards and a corresponding decrease in value of intrinsic rewards. Table 5.5 shows that there is evidence to support this; however, the statistical significance of the results can be attributed to the large sample size. As can be seen from Figure 5.1, the actual changes are minimal and even though the percentage of people valuing a safe job increased, the percentage of people valuing a good income did not. A possible reason for the disparity in the results is that the Kalleberg and Marsden (2013) study focused specifically on the United States, whereas this study looked at work values from a global perspective.

Twenge et al. (2010) studied the generational differences in work values. They too, found that later generations place more importance on intrinsic values compared with older ones. However, the succession of older workers with younger ones is a gradual process and therefore, the transition of work values within the work force will be gradual. Therefore, analysing differences between generations will yield greater variability than looking at overall trends across time. Due to this study analysing changes between waves and not generations; only going as far back as 1994; and only having three data points, it cannot definitively support or refute Twenge et al. (2010).

6.1.2 Gender

Historically, men were expected to be the main source of family income. This means that they were the ones who were more likely to value having a safe and risk free job so that they could look after their family (Johnson, 2005). Figure 5.3 shows that over the 11 years (3 waves) analysed, the percentage of women valuing a safe job with no risk has overtaken men. As per the literature, this could be attributed to changing female ideologies. Younger generations of women were brought up in a more liberal age and have been socialised to have more egalitarian views than their predecessors (Bolzendahl & Myers, 2004; Damaske, 2011). Increasing numbers of women are attaining university degrees and moving into previously male dominated positions (Damaske, 2011). All of this could mean that younger women are more likely to feel financially responsible for their families than women from previous generations did and are thus more likely to value a stable job. The increasing percentage of women who value a safe job with no risk most likely reflects the fact that each year, additional young women with more egalitarian views enter the workplace as older employees retire (see Figure 5.3).

6.2 Hypothesis 2: Relationship Status and Work Values

Previous studies have shown that there is a definite relationship between marriage and work values (Kalleberg & Marsden, 2013). It is thus possible that getting married changes a person's values. However, people's values also influence whether they want to get married, and it has been found that a person's early work values are effective predictors of the age at which they will get married (Johnson, 2005). It is thus, unclear whether work values influence work marital status or whether marital status influences work values. Given the relative ease of discovering the relationship status of a person, regardless of the direction of the relationship, marital status can be used as a predictor of work values.

Previous studies only focused on the relationship between getting married and work values (Jin & Rounds, 2012; Johnson, 2005). They did not specifically examine potential relationships between work values and other relationship statuses, notably divorced and widowed people. According to the literature, marriage is usually associated with a decrease in the relative importance of intrinsic rewards and an increase in the relative importance of extrinsic rewards (Jin & Rounds, 2012; Johnson, 2005). The results of this study confirm this and they further indicate that widowed people share this behaviour, despite the underlying circumstances presumably being very different (refer to p. 63). Married people are more likely than single people to value money and security over doing an important job; and widowed people even more likely. Johnson (2005) suggests that married people gain their intrinsic rewards from their relationships instead of from their jobs, therefore decreasing the value that they place on intrinsic work rewards; with widowed people, it is not their intrinsic values that decrease but their extrinsic values that increase, thus yielding the same results. A possible reason for this is that widowed people no longer have the support of their spouses and therefore need to be more independent, which leads them to value jobs that provide a good income and are risk free. In addition to security, widowed people also value working with people they like. This is especially prevalent among women. A possible reason is that because they no longer have spouses with whom to share their lives; instead, they seek friendship from their colleagues.

Both divorce and separation appear to have very similar effects on work values. The results show that the chances of divorced and separated people seeking meaning at work with a job that is meaningful and important increases significantly.

The results of hypothesis 2 are summarised in Figure 6.1.

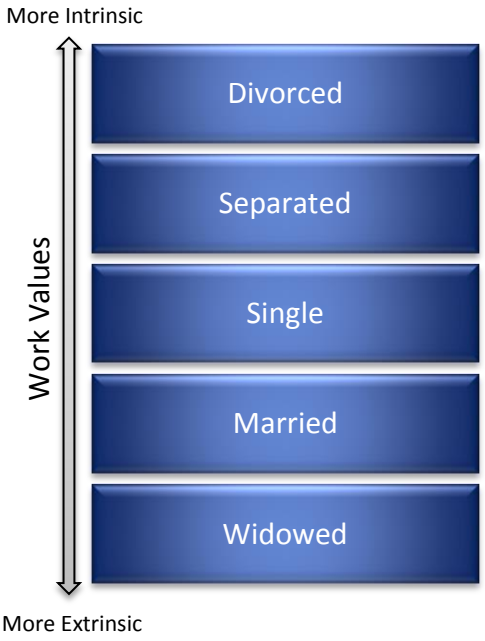

Figure 6.1: Model of the relationship between relationship status and work values

The different relationship statuses are associated with different work values. Some relationship statuses are more likely to be associated with extrinsic work values and other relationship statuses are more likely to be associated with intrinsic work values.

Figure 6.1 depicts the likely difference between intrinsic and extrinsic work values for people with different relationship statuses.

6.3 Hypothesis 3: Number of Children and Work Values

According to studies done by Jin and Rounds (2012) and Johnson (2005), extrinsic rewards such as benefits and pay become more important to people when they have children. These studies only looked at parenthood status in general; this study

extended this research and looked at the impact of each additional child on work values.

The results show that there is a relationship between people having children and their work values. However, even though the effects are statistically significant, given the large sample size, the practical increase in the likelihood of an additional child causing a person's work values to change is relatively small compared to some of the other variables tested. The multinomial logistic regression indicates that each additional child will result in a 4.8 percent increase in the likelihood that a person will value a good income, a 6.3 percent increase in the likelihood of valuing a safe job with no risk and a 3.8 percent increase in the likelihood of valuing working with people who they like relative to doing an important job.

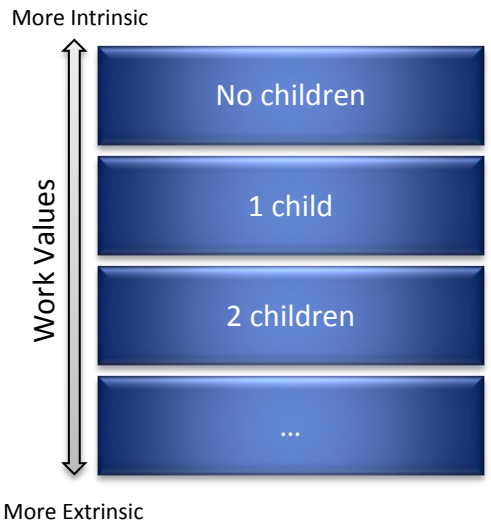

Figure 6.2: Model of the impact that children have on work values

People with more children are more likely to have extrinsic work values; conversely people with fewer children are more likely to have intrinsic work values.

Figure 6.2 shows that each additional child that a person has increases the likelihood that they will begin to increase the value that they place on extrinsic rewards at work.

6.4 Hypothesis 4: Social Class and Work Values

The results generated during the testing of hypothesis 4 show that social class is the strongest predictor of work values. When people move up or down a class, there is a very high likelihood that the things that they find most important in a job will change. People in higher social classes are more inclined to value work preferences that offer intrinsic rewards, rather than extrinsic rewards. More specifically, people with higher socio-economic statuses are more likely to value a job with a good salary over valuing an important job and the odds that they will adjust their values from appreciating a safe job with no risks to doing a more meaningful job will increase substantially. This confirms the literature that states that due to both necessity as well as upbringing, lower class people are more likely to value extrinsic rewards than upper class people (Kalleberg & Marsden, 2013).

Looking at the two intrinsic rewards, it is interesting to note that people in higher classes are more likely to value doing an important job to working with people who they like.

Figure 5.2 shows that the upper class is the exception to higher classes valuing intrinsic rewards more than the classes below them. A possible reason for this is that once people reach the upper middle class, most people are satisfied with the amount of money that they have and choose to focus on more meaningful activities that bring them greater satisfaction. Only people who continue to focus purely on extrinsic rewards will make it to, and manage to stay in, the upper class.

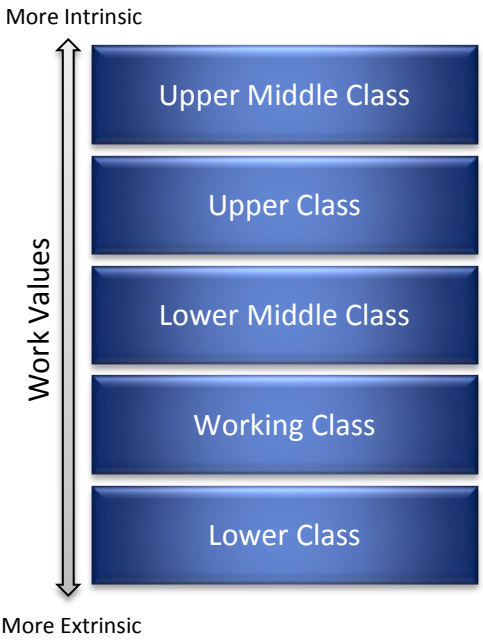

Figure 6.3: Model of the impact that social class has on work values

With the exception of the upper class, people in higher classes are more likely to value intrinsic rewards than people in lower classes.

Figure 6.3 summarises the likely effect that a person's social class will have on their work values.

6.5 Hypothesis 5: Gender and Work Values

Schein's (2007) study showed that over the last 30 years, women's views have shifted from associating gender with management success to believing that there is no relationship between gender and being a good manager but that this was not the case with men. Men still maintain the belief that they possess superior management traits. In addition to this, they also still hold the majority of management positions and earn higher salaries than women (Baird & Williamson, 2010; Davidson & Burke, 2011; Ibarra, Carter & Silva, 2010; Schein, 2007). The results show that men are more likely to value extrinsic rewards in the form of money and a safe and stable job than women. It is possible that this can be attributed to the reinforcement and accentuation process, where people start to value what they already have (Kalleberg & Marsden,

2013). Another contributing factor could be that men are still expected to be the main breadwinner, even in dual income households (Johnson, 2005). This additional pressure on men to provide most likely causes them to value material benefits more than women.

According to Morrison (2009), women place a greater emphasis on emotional connections in relationships than men do. Due to the importance that women place on good relationships, not getting along with the leadership of an organisation is one of the major reasons that women end up leaving their jobs (Metz, 2011). Morrison's (2009) theory of "tending and befriending" postulates that female natural instincts have evolved to tending and befriending in order to increase the survival of their offspring. This tendency also results in women seeking comfort during stressful situations, including stressful work situations, more than men do. This was confirmed by the fact that women consistently scored higher than men at the 95% level of significance in valuing working with people who they like across all three waves. Out of all the people that chose "working with people they like" as their first choice when looking for a job, 55.4% were women (Refer to Table D.1 for the actual numbers.).

Statistically, the odds that a woman will value working with people who she likes over doing an important job are 8.4 percent greater than those for a man. Due to the fact that women are also more likely than men to value doing an important job, overall it can be concluded that women do in fact value intrinsic rewards in the office more than men do.

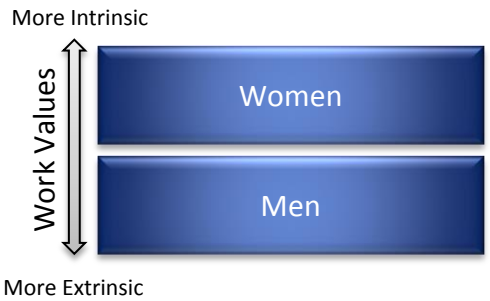

Figure 6.4: Model of the relationship between gender and work values

There is a greater chance that a woman's work values will be intrinsically oriented and a man's work values will be extrinsically oriented.

Figure 6.4 shows that men are more likely than women to place a greater emphasis on extrinsic work values than women.

6.6 Hypothesis 6: Work Values and Overall Life Satisfaction

The results show a strong relationship between work values and overall life satisfaction. The average life satisfaction of people whose main priorities at work were extrinsic in the form of valuing money and security were considerably lower than people who placed a greater emphasis on intrinsic rewards. The results are captured in Figure 6.5. On average, people who value money the most relative to the other work values were found to be the least happy, followed by those that give priority to having a safe job with no risks, working with people who they like and lastly, doing an important job.

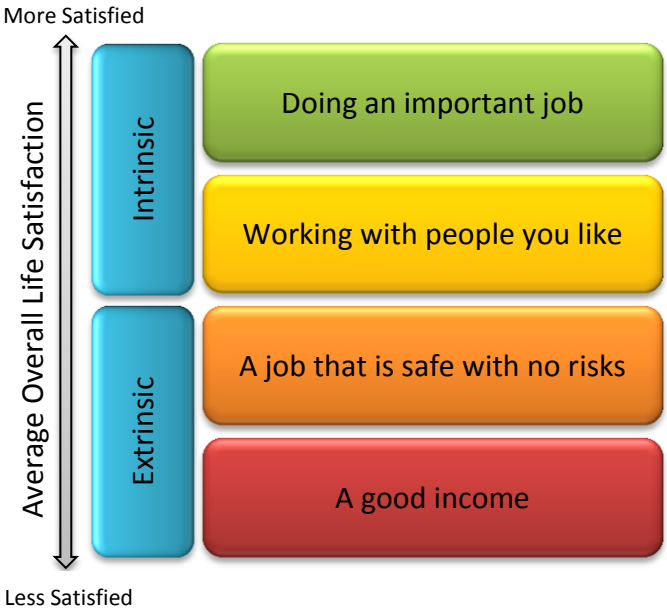

Figure 6.5: Model of the effect that the relative importance of work values has on overall life satisfaction

The diagram shows the relationship between work values and overall life satisfaction. People with who place a greater emphasis on extrinsic work values have been found to have lower satisfaction levels than people who value intrinsic rewards more.

The results confirm Vansteekiste et al.'s (2007) study that used self-determination theory to prove that excessive emphasis on extrinsic values can lead to negative outcomes, including decreased levels of satisfaction not just at work, but in other aspects of their lives as well. These results break down extrinsic and intrinsic rewards even further into individual work values. It is not that valuing extrinsic rewards will decrease satisfaction; it is rather the lack of intrinsic focus that decreases satisfaction. People who are extrinsically focussed are often overly concerned with the opinions of others, which distract them from their own wants and desires. In the questionnaire, respondents were asked what their "First choice is when looking for a job". Thus, it is not to say that people who chose working with people they like do not value earning a good income; rather it shows that the relative importance that they assign to working with people who they like is higher than material rewards.

6.7 Conclusion

Previous research has shown that work values change over time but due to there being too few historical data points, this study was unable to confirm this (Kalleberg & Marsden 2013).

The study demonstrated that relationship status, number of children, social class and gender all affect work values in varying degrees. The interaction of all four variables help to shape people's work values. It also added additional support for the theory that people's work values are a big determinant of their overall life satisfaction.

Figure 6.6 illustrates how the results of all six hypotheses have been amalgamated into a comprehensive conceptual model that demonstrates how it is a combination of several factors including: a person's relationship status; the number of children that they have; their social class; and their gender, that all work together to assist in the formation of work values and also how these work values are associated with different levels of happiness.

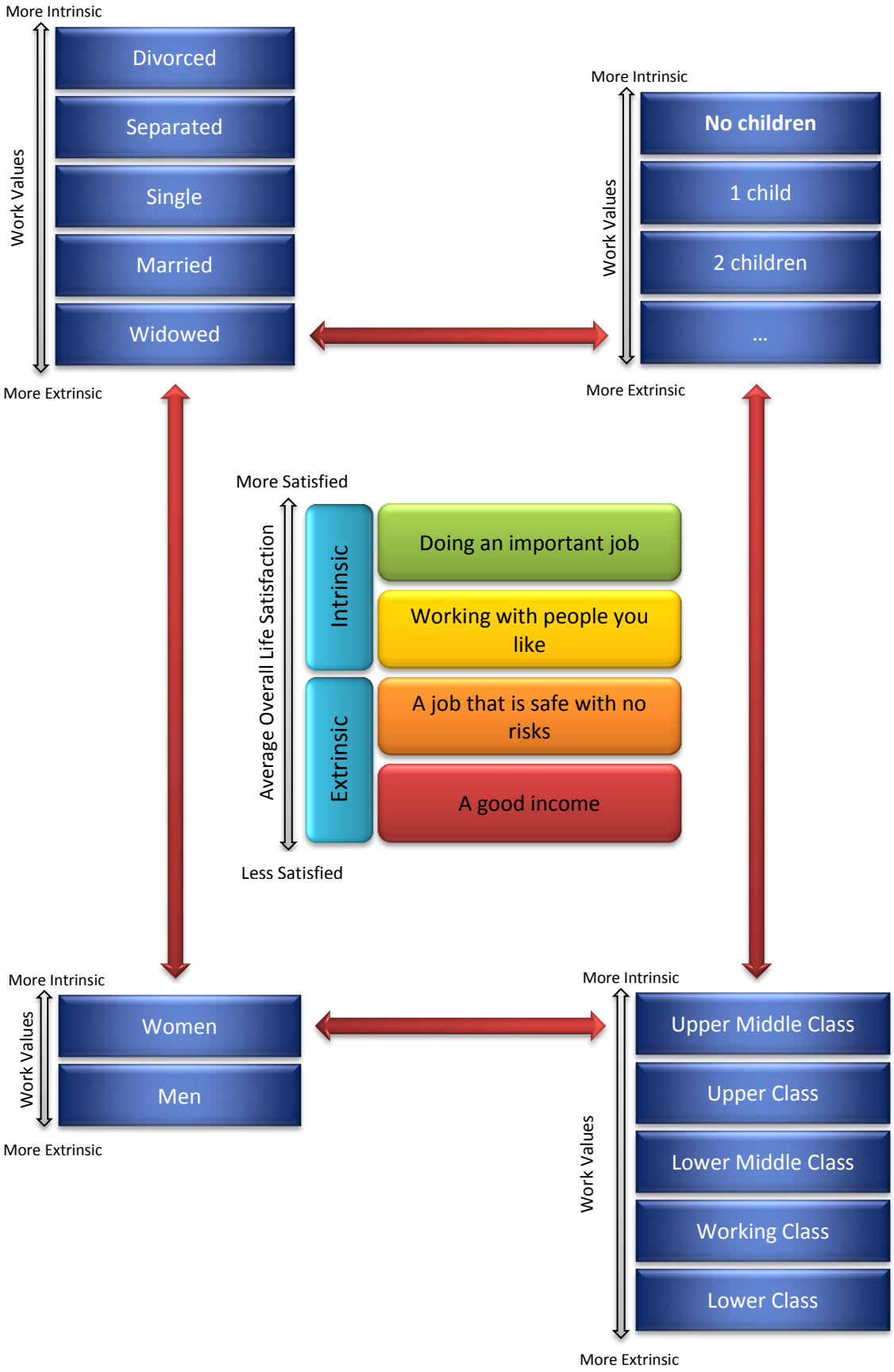

Figure 6.6: Model of the interaction of life factors, gender, work values and life satisfaction

Relationship status, number of children, social class and gender are all predictors of how intrinsic or extrinsic a person's work values will be; together, they interact to form different combinations that are associated with different work values. These work values, in turn, are associated with different levels of overall life-satisfaction.

7. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 Summary of Main Findings

The literature indicates that due to structural changes, work values have been changing over time (Parry & Urwin, 2011). The current trend shows that extrinsic values are slowly increasing whilst intrinsic ones are decreasing (Kalleberg & Marsden, 2013). The study was unable to confirm or refute this, due to there not being enough historical data points. While the differences between some of the waves are statistically significant, due to the effects of large sample size and the actual effect size being too small, it was not possible to make any conclusive deductions in this area.

The study was, however, able to fulfil its primary objective of ascertaining the key determinants of work values. In common with the literature, a combination of relationship status, number of children, gender and social class were all found to influence work values, which in turn were found to predict overall life satisfaction (Johnson, 2005; Kalleberg & Marsden, 2013; Morrison, 2009). This is summarised in Figure 7.1.

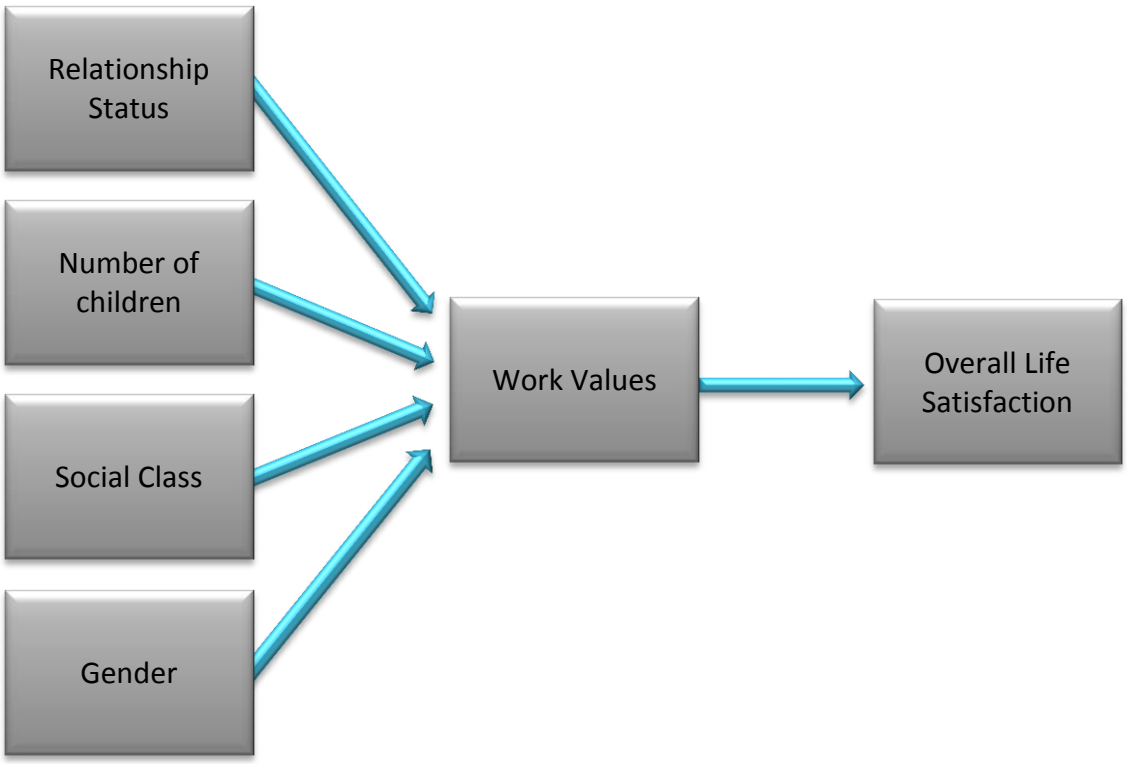

Figure 7.1: Summary of findings

The primary research objective was fulfilled by ascertaining that relationship status, number of children, social class and gender are predictors of work values. Work values were further found to have a statistical relationship with overall life satisfaction, thus fulfilling the secondary objective.

Social class is the main predictor of work values. Being able to focus on intrinsic rewards might be seen as a luxury that only the wealthy can afford; a luxury that the upper class choose to forgo in order to secure their current status. The poorer people are, the more important it is for them to find well-paying jobs to support both themselves and their families (Kalleberg & Marsden, 2013). People in higher classes generally have more than sufficient resources to provide for their families, thus the chance of them starting to place a greater emphasis on intrinsic rewards such as working with people who they like and doing a job which they perceive to be meaningful, increases substantially (Kalleberg & Marsden, 2013).

Another secondary reason for the differences between classes can be attributed to upbringing. Individuals are influenced by societal norms as well as by the older people in their families. Parents in working class households are more likely to stress to their children the importance of having a decent paying job (Kalleberg & Marsden, 2013). In

contrast to this, there is a far greater chance that middle class parents will encourage their children to pursue the activities that make them happy (Kalleberg & Marsden, 2013).

The second biggest predictor of work values is relationship status. There is a good chance that people who get married will start to value extrinsic rewards, such as good pay and a risk free job, more than intrinsic ones. Marriage can lead to additional expenses such as buying a new home or having children, thus increasing the importance that they place on money (Johnson, 2005). In addition to this, married people are able get intrinsic fulfilment from their relationship, making them less likely to seek it in the workplace (Johnson, 2005). Widowed people are even more likely to value extrinsic rewards presumably out of necessity, as they are forced into a situation where they need to be self-sufficient because they no longer have a partner to help meet the family's expenses. The added responsibility of having children is also associated with parents who are slightly less likely to want to take on a risky job and increases the value that they place on a job that pays well.

Differences in work values between men and women are also evident. Women have been found to place greater value on having good personal relationships at work. Morrison's (2009) theory of tending and befriending is a possible reason for this. The theory states that women have evolved to tend and befriend in stressful situations as opposed to the traditional theory of fighting or fleeing. Thus, when work gets stressful, women are more likely than men to turn to their colleagues for support; good relationships within the workplace are vital to being able to fulfil this need.

These four variables do not work in isolation. They interact with one another and other external factors to form a combined effect. For example, single mothers often exhibit the same work values as men, perhaps because they often take on the responsibilities that are traditionally assigned to the father. Also, while women are overall more likely to value intrinsic rewards than men, this is less likely to be the case with working class women whose well-being is likely to be more dependent on them earning a decent salary than the satisfaction they would get from doing an important job.

Psychologically, work values are important because they associated with people's happiness. There is a direct link between work values and satisfaction, not just in the workplace but in life in general. People who value intrinsic rewards more than extrinsic ones are generally happier. More specifically, the people who have been found to be the happiest are most often those whose values are altruistic in nature. This is especially helpful to companies because understanding what motivates their employees can help them know how best to foster a mutually beneficial relationship. Happier people are more collaborative, motivated and perform at higher levels (Frieze et al., 2006).

7.2 Implications for Management

Most people cite extrinsic rewards as their top priority when looking for a job, which can be viewed as a good thing for organisations, as it is much easier for companies to offer extrinsic rewards than intrinsic ones. However, people whose intrinsic values are fulfilled are considerably happier than when they are not, and happier employees will result in better productivity and lower levels of employee turnover (Mysíková & Večerník, 2013). This means higher profits because of reduced expenses due to low employee turnover. A simple, low cost step to assist managers in meeting their employee's intrinsic needs is to stress the importance of each and every employee's job in order to give their employees a sense of meaning (Gagné & Deci, 2005).

Managers who understand the factors that influence work values will be better able to understand what motivates their employees. They will also be better suited to hiring the right people whose values align those of the organisation by ascertaining a potential employee's work values prior to hiring them. Just because somebody can do a job, does not mean that they are the correct person for the job. Building a team whose work values are in congruence with each other and with the organisation will create a collaborative, healthy and productive workplace environment (Perrewé & Hochwarter, 2001). Even in cases where an employee does not have value congruence with the organisation or the rest of the team, a good manager will know how to motivate that employee based on that individual's personal work values.

7.3 Limitations and Recommendations for Future Research

7.3.1 Secondary Data

One of the drawbacks of using secondary data is that the researcher does not have full control on the availability of the data (Saunders & Lewis, 2012). The data used in the study were limited to three waves, limiting the ability of any statistical analysis looking for historical movements to reliably discern significant trends. It used the latest data available, which only included data up until 2007. The next wave, which will include data up until 1 March 2014, will be available on 1 April 2014 (World Values Survey, n.d.-c). It is recommended that future research repeats the methodology followed in this study to include the next wave in order to get more up-to-date results and to test the conceptual model developed in this study. Another drawback of using the WVS is that there were slight inconsistencies with regards to the countries that were included and the questions that were asked per country in the different waves (Refer to Appendix A); again, such inconsistencies are common in secondary datasets and represent a further drawback in their use. In some cases, using secondary data limits the ability of the researcher to understand the relationships as various "subtle" factors can be discerned while collecting data that are not necessarily reflected in the data themselves; a "feel" for the data can be extremely valuable.

7.3.2 The Construct of Work Values

Major changes have been taking place in the labour market. These changes include technological advancements, globalisation, lack of job stability and changing attitudes of both employers and employees (Johnson & Monserud, 2012; Kalleberg & Marsden, 2013). The work value constructs were developed decades ago and might not be pertinent to younger generations (Leuty & Hansen, 2011). In addition to this, values that were previously and incorrectly assumed not to be relevant to the workplace might have been missed by subsequent studies (Leuty & Hansen, 2011). As discussed in the literature review, Leuty and Hansen (2011) looked at work values as a construct and the different ways that work values have been defined. This study focused on one

definition of work values, where four work values were selected; two of them being extrinsic ("a good income" and "a safe job with no risk") and the other two intrinsic "working with people they like" and "doing an important job". However, due to different measures of work values being chosen by each study, different studies could produce inconsistent or incomparable results (Leuty & Hansen, 2011). Thus, a similar study to this one could be conducted on a different selection of work values and could thus yield different results. The WVS choices of work values, "doing an important job", "a job that pays well" and "working with people you like" roughly map to three of Jin and Round's (2012) most commonly identified work value concepts that were consistently found in the majority of studies, even if slightly different words and groups were used, namely: "personal meaning", "exchange/compensation" and "social contact". Monetary compensation is sometimes included in the status and prestige category but status was not explicitly included in the construct used in this study. This study adequately covered the two most commonly used categories of work values, name intrinsic and extrinsic, but further studies need to be conducted in order to clarifying the construct of work values in order to ensure comprehensiveness and consistency.

7.3.3 Granularity

This study analysed work values from a global perspective. Hofstede (2001) contended that collective programming is found at a national level and that national culture influences people's work values (as cited in Gahan & Abeysekera, 2009). While the aim was to understand work values globally, a country-by-country comparison of work values was beyond the scope of this study. Future research should look at differences in work values across different countries and cultures. This could include a study of the differences between developed countries and developing countries as well as the differences between patriarchal societies and less patriarchal societies.

7.3.4 Variable Exhaustiveness

This study created a conceptual model to explain how the interaction of several variables can be used to predict work values and subsequently life satisfaction. This is useful for employers in evaluating the likelihood of employees valuing different things with respect to organisational values. The variables tested were based on those explored in the literature but this does not make them exhaustive. Johnson (2005) found that the education levels of both the parents as well of the individual influence work values. More educated people are generally less concerned with job security. Whilst there is a strong relationship between class and education, this does not rule out education as being a variable that could improve the accuracy of the model.

Macroeconomic and structural changes are also thought to affect work values (Kalleberg and Marsden, 2013). Future research could look at the variability in work values associated with economic booms and recessions.

The focus of this study was work values. Work values are only one predictor of satisfaction; there are many others. Blickle et al. (2011) proposed that job performance, promotability and cooperation can be predicted by a combination of work values and political skill. Two work values were studied: getting along and getting ahead. Regardless of whether people valued getting along with their colleagues or valued prestige and power, political skill was found to be a necessary element of success. Even if people value getting along, if they are socially inept, they tend to have awkward and inappropriate demeanours which decreases their performance ratings and they are actually perceived as having lower levels of cooperation. The same is true for people who value getting ahead. Just because somebody has strong motives to get ahead, if this is not coupled with high social competency, the negative impressions trigger low assessments when it comes to job performance and promotability. This study focused specifically on the interaction between demographics, work values and life satisfaction but is not exhaustive and was further constrained by the limitations of the secondary dataset employed in the research design. Whilst work values are an important predictor of work satisfaction

and career choices, there are many other variables that could potentially affect satisfaction levels.

7.4 Conclusion

This study conducted an empirical examination of the primary factors that influence work values and their impact on overall life satisfaction. It also added to the academic literature on the impacts and predictive skills of work values on vocational and human resources behaviour. Work values are important from a psychological standpoint because of the association they have with people's overall life satisfaction. Furthermore, a better understanding of work values is useful to companies in helping them to formulate their human resource strategies. Tools were created which allow practitioners to infer likely work values from easily assessed indicators (notably marital status, number of children, gender and social class and) rather than requiring a detailed, complex and resource intensive study of work values themselves during recruitment or ongoing human resources and management activities.

Such tools give insight into an individual's likely overall life satisfaction, work values and work-life balance needs, equipping organisations with the ability to not only estimate the likely "fit" of an employee to an organisation's own "corporate" work values and culture, but also a measure of their likely productivity. Additional work is required to refine these tools and ensure more rigorous predictive power; in particular, additional demographic information such as age, education level, religion and country of origin and/or residence may allow greater predictive skill in the model. It should be cautioned that such models must be used with considerable care and an in-depth understanding of the potential shortfalls and challenges of employing such statistically based models within an organisation or management practice; they present an additional tool to assist, rather than replacing existing mechanisms for ongoing management and recruitment activities. Their use should perhaps best be directed toward equipping managers with tools to identify "at risk" employees and implement case-by-case further investigation and supportive management activities, rather than in screening, termination and performance management. Whatever their

role, any legal and ethical implications of their use should be carefully assessed by those who choose to use them in addition to ensuring they fully recognise the potential shortfalls of such an approach. In addition, they do not present a mechanism to address systemic problems in an organisation which may negatively affect an individual's work-life balance and overall life satisfaction, particularly in the context of the challenge of ensuring gender, race and multicultural equity in the workplace. Such effects can only be realised through holistic management shifts and an organisational culture that effectively supports gender equality in reality, as well as in policy.

Ever increasing globalisation, multiculturalism and multinational business activities require such tools to be predictive in many different parts of the world and with employees from different backgrounds and cultures. Existing research primarily focuses on the relationships between predictive factors, work values and overall life satisfaction in only a single country and, often, for only a single influencing factor at a time. This study utilised statistical analysis of a global dataset, the World Values Survey (WVS), to create a baseline model that utilises four key factors to indicate likely work values and infer overall life satisfaction on a global scale. This model demonstrated the potential of such approaches to equip organisations in their assessment of the work values and overall life satisfaction of employees. This work provides a useful foundation to further extend this approach, particularly by taking into account more nuanced factors that prevail in particular regions or countries. The WVS itself can be used to investigate such country-by-country differences, but it is likely that significant additional field research, comparable to the WVS study, would be required to retain statistical rigour and the predictive skill of generated models. In sufficiently large global enterprises, a study and analysis of the actual employees of that company and specific features of that company that affect work values and life satisfaction may provide additional power. The industrial or commercial sector in which a person works may also prove a useful indicator, although the WVS dataset cannot be used to investigate these latter two scenarios. Additional demographic or personal factors (both existing within the WVS or not measured therein) could also enhance the predictive skill of the models, but at the cost of additional complexity for the user. Additional work could also transform the conceptual models presented here

into numerical models, which could more readily provide organisations with an assessment of likely work values and overall life satisfaction of their workforce,

In summary, the study identified four factors that are influential in predicting work values; marital status, number of children, social class and gender. The interaction of these four factors are indicators of how intrinsic or extrinsic a person's work values are likely to be, which in turn can be used to predict satisfaction levels due to intrinsic work values being associated with greater levels of satisfaction. These findings are encapsulated in the model presented in Figure 6.6.

REFERENCES

Affleck, D. (2010). Probability sampling. In Neil J. Salkind (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of research design.* (pp. 1110-1113). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications. doi:10.4135/9781412961288.n337

Anderson, C., & Rutkowski, L. (2008). Multinomial logistic regression. In J. Osborne (Ed.), *Best practices in quantitative methods.* (pp. 390-410). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications. doi:10.4135/9781412995627.d31

Baird, M., & Williamson, S. (2010). Women, work and industrial relations in 2009. *Journal of Industrial Relations*, *52*(3), 355-369. doi: 10.1177/0022185610365644

Bakker, W., & Karsten, L. (2013). Balancing paid work, care and leisure in post-separation households: A comparison of single parents with co-parents. *Acta Sociologica*, *56*(2), 173-187. doi:10.1177/0001699312466178

Belkin, L. (2003). The opt-out revolution. *New York Times Magazine*, *26*, 42-47.

Blickle, G., Fröhlich, J. K., Ehlert, S., Pirner, K., Dietl, E., Hanes, T. J., & Ferris, G. R. (2011). Socioanalytic theory and work behavior: Roles of work values and political skill in job performance and promotability assessment. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *78*(1), 136-148. doi:10.1016/j.jvb.2010.05.010

Blumberg, B., Cooper, D. R., & Schindler, P. S. (2008). *Business research methods* (2nd ed.). Berkshire: McGraw-Hill.

Bolzendahl, C. I., & Myers, D. J. (2004). Feminist attitudes and support for gender equality: Opinion change in women and men, 1974–1998. *Social Forces*, *83*(2), 759-789. doi:10.1353/sof.2005.0005

Booth, A. L., & Van Ours, J. C. (2008). Job satisfaction and family happiness: The part-time work puzzle. *The Economic Journal*, *118*(526), F77-F99. doi:10.1111/j.1468-0297.2007.02117.x

Burns, R. P., & Burns, R. (2008). *Business research methods and statistics using SPSS*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.

Chu, K. H. L. (2008). A factorial validation of work value structure: Second-order confirmatory factor analysis and its implications. *Tourism Management*, *29*(2), 320-330. doi: 10.1016/j.tourman.2007.03.003

Damaske, S. (2011). A "major career woman"? How women develop early expectations about work. *Gender & Society*, *25*(4), 409-430. doi:10.1177/0891243211412050

Daniel, J. (2012). *Sampling essentials: Practical guidelines for making sampling choices.* Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications, Inc. doi:10.4135/9781452272047

Davidson, M. J., & Burke, R. J. (Eds.). (2011). *Women in management worldwide: Progress and prospects*. Surrey, UK: Gower.

Field, A. (2009). *Discovering statistics using SPSS.* (3rd ed.). London, UK: Sage Publications.

Fowler, F. J. (2009). *Survey research methods* (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Frieze, I. H., Olson, J. E., Murrell, A. J., & Selvan, M. S. (2006). Work values and their effect on work behavior and work outcomes in female and male managers. *Sex Roles*, *54*(1-2), 83-93. doi:10.1007/s11199-006-8871-z

Gagné, M., & Deci, E. L. (2005). Self-determination theory and work motivation. *Journal of Organizational behavior*, *26*(4), 331-362. doi:10.1002/job.322

Gahan, P., & Abeysekera, L. (2009). What shapes an individual's work values? An integrated model of the relationship between work values, national culture and self-construal. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *20*(1), 126-147. doi:10.1080/09585190802528524

Hagström, T., & Kjellberg, A. (2007). Stability and change in work values among male and female nurses and engineers. *Scandinavian Journal of Psychology*, *48*(2), 143-151. doi:10.1111/j.1467-9450.2007.00576.x

Hakim, C. (2006). Women, careers, and work-life preferences. *British Journal of Guidance & Counselling*, *34*(3), 279-294. doi:10.1080/03069880600769118

Hartung, P. J., Fouad, N. A., Leong, F. T., & Hardin, E. E. (2010). Individualism-collectivism links to occupational plans and work values. *Journal of Career Assessment*, *18*(1), 34-45. doi:10.1177/1069072709340526

Hitlin, S., & Piliavin, J. A. (2004). Values: Reviving a dormant concept. *Annual Review of Sociology*, *30*, 359-393. doi:10.1146/annurev.soc.30.012703.110640

Ibarra, H., Carter, N., & Silva, C. (2010). Why men still get more promotions than women. *Harvard Business Review*, *88*(9), 80-85.

Jin, J., & Rounds, J. (2012). Stability and change in work values: A meta-analysis of longitudinal studies. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *80*(2), 326-339. doi:10.1016/jvb.2011.10.007

Johnson, M. K. (2005). Family roles and work values: processes of selection and change. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, *67*(2), 352-369. doi: 10.1111/j.0022-2445.2005.00121.x

Johnson, M. K., & Monserud, M. A. (2012). Work value development from adolescence to adulthood. *Advances in Life Course Research*, *17*(2), 45-58. doi:10.1016/j.alcr.2012.02.002

Kalleberg, A. L., & Marsden, P. V. (2013). Changing work values in the United States, 1973-2006. *Social Science Research* , *42*(2), 225-270. doi:10.1016/j.ssresearch.2012.09.012

Keller, G. (2008). *Statistics for Management and Economics* (8th ed.). Mason, OH: South Western

Kuperberg, A., & Stone, P. (2008). The media depiction of women who opt out. *Gender & Society*, *22*(4), 497-517. doi:10.1177/0891243208319767

Lantz, B. (2012). The large sample size fallacy. *Scandinavian Journal of Caring Sciences*, *27*(2), 487-492. doi:0.1111/j.1471-6712.2012.01052.x

Lepkowski, J. (2008). Primary Sampling Unit (PSU). In Paul J. Lavrakas (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of survey research methods.* (pp. 611-612). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications. doi:10.4135/9781412963947.n398

Leuty, M. E. (2010). *Exploring Evidence of Validity for the Construct of Work Values* (Doctoral dissertation). University of Minnesota.

Leuty, M. E., & Hansen, J. I. C. (2011). Evidence of construct validity for work values. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *79*(2), 379-390. doi:10.1016/j.jvb.2011.04.008

Ligthelm, A. A., Martins, J. H., & Van Wyk, H.D.J. (2005). *Marketing research in practice*. Pretoria: Unisa Press.

Lin, M., Lucas, H. C., & Shmuéli, G. (in press). Too big to fail: Large samples and the p-value problem. *Information Systems Research*. doi:10.128/isre.2013.0480

Linz, S. J., & Semykina, A. (2012). What makes workers happy? Anticipated rewards and job satisfaction. *Industrial Relations: A Journal of Economy and Society*, *51*(4), 811-844. doi:10.1111/j.1468-232X.2012.00702.x

Mainiero, L. A., & Sullivan, S. E. (2005). Kaleidoscope careers: An alternate explanation for the “opt-out “revolution. *The Academy of Management Executive*, *19*(1), 106-123. doi:10.5465/AME.2005.15841962

Menard, S. (2008). Logistic regression. In S. Boslaugh, & L. McNutt (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of Epidemiology.* (pp. 611-616). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications. doi:10.4135/9781412953948.n268

Metz, I. (2011). Women leave work because of family responsibilities: Fact or fiction? *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources*, *49*(3), 285-307. doi:10.1177/1038411111413216

Morgan, D. (2008). Quota sampling. In L. M. Given (Ed.), *The SAGE encyclopedia of qualitative research methods.* (pp. 723-724). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications. doi: 10.4135/9781412963909.n363

Morris, C. (2008). *Quantitative approaches in business studies* (7th ed.). Essex: Pearson Education.

Morrison, R. L. (2009). Are women tending and befriending in the workplace? Gender differences in the relationship between workplace friendships and organizational outcomes. *Sex Roles*, *60*(1-2), 1-13. doi:10.1007/s11199-008-9513-4

Mysíková, M., & Večerník, J. (2013). Job satisfaction across Europe: differences between and within regions. *Post-Communist Economies*, *25*(4), 539-556. doi:10.1080/14631377.2013.844934

Nordenmark, M. (2004). Does gender ideology explain differences between countries regarding the involvement of women and of men in paid and unpaid work? *International Journal of Social Welfare*, *13*(3), 233-243. doi: 10.1111/j.1369-6866.2004.00317.x

Pallant, J. (2010). *SPSS survival manual: A step by step guide to data analysis using SPSS* (4th ed.). Berkshire, UK: McGraw-Hill.

Parry, E., & Urwin, P. (2011). Generational differences in work values: A review of theory and evidence. *International Journal of Management Reviews, 13*(1), 79-96. doi:10.1111/j.1468-2370.2010.00285.x

Perrewé, P.L., & Hochwarter, W.A. (2001). Can we really have it all? The attainment of work and family values. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, *10*(1), 29-33

Porfeli, E. J. (2007). Work values system development during adolescence. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *70*(1), 42-60. doi:10.1016/j.jvb.2006.04.005

Posner, B. Z. (2010). Another look at the impact of personal and organizational values congruency. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *97*(4), 535-541. doi:10.1007/s10551-010-0530-1

Saunders, M., & Lewis, P. (2012). Doing research in business and management. An essential guide to planning your project. Harlow: Prentice Hall.

Schein, V. E. (2007). Women in management: Reflections and projections. *Women in Management Review*, *22*(1), 6-18. doi:10.1108/09649420710726193

Schwartz, S. H., & Bilsky, W. (1987). Toward a universal psychological structure of human values. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *53*(3), 550. doi:10.1037/0022-3514.53.3.550

Shao, P., Resick, C. J., & Hargis, M. B. (2011). Helping and harming others in the workplace: The roles of personal values and abusive supervision. *Human Relations*, 64(8), 1051-1078. doi:10.1177/0018726711399940

Sheng, Y. (2008). Testing the assumptions of analysis of variance. In J. Osborne (Ed.), *Best practices in quantitative methods.* (pp. 324-341). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications, Inc. doi:10.4135/9781412995627.d27

Siegel, A. F. (2011). *Practical business statistics* (6th ed.). Burlington: Academic Press.

Sullivan, S. E., Forret, M. L., Carraher, S. M., & Mainiero, L. A. (2009). Using the kaleidoscope career model to examine generational differences in work attitudes. *Career Development International*, *14*(3), 284-302. doi:10.1108/13620430910966442

Timberlake, S. (2005). Social capital and gender in the workplace. *Journal of Management Development*, *24*(1), 34-44. doi: 10.1108/02621710510572335

Twenge, J. M., Campbell, S. M., Hoffman, B. J., & Lance, C. E. (2010). Generational differences in work values: Leisure and extrinsic values increasing, social and intrinsic values decreasing. *Journal of Management*, *36*(5), 1117-1142. doi:10.1177/0149206309352246

Vansteenkiste, M., Neyrinck, B., Niemiec, C. P., Soenens, B., Witte, H., & Broeck, A. (2007). On the relations among work value orientations, psychological need satisfaction and job outcomes: A self-determination theory approach. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, *80*(2), 251-277. doi:10.1348/096317906X111024

Veenhoven, R. (1997). Advances in understanding happiness. *Revue Québécoise de Psychologie*, *18*(2), 29-74.

Von Bergen, C. W. (2008). "The times they are a-changin": Family responsibilities discrimination and the EEOC. *Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal*, *20*(3), 177-194. doi:10.1007/s10672-008-9064-4

Warr, P. (2008). Work values: Some demographic and cultural correlates. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 81(4), 751-775. doi:10.1348/096317907X263638

Wegner, T. (2012). *Applied business statistics* (3rd ed.). Cape Town: Juta Academic.

Weiers, R. M. (2011). *Introduction to business statistics* (7th ed.). Mason, OH: South Western.

Welman, J. C. & Kruger, S. J. (2001) *Research methodology* (2nd ed.). Cape Town: Oxford University Press.

World Values Survey (n.d.-a). Constitution. Retrieved January 05, 2014 from http://www.worldvaluessurvey.org/wvs/articles/folder_published/article_base_52/files/constitution.pdf

World Values Survey (n.d.-b). Documentation of the Values Surveys. Retrieved January 23, 2014 from http://www.wvsevsdb.com/wvs/WVSDocumentation.jsp?Idioma=I

World Values Survey (n.d.-c). World Values Survey. Retrieved June 23, 2012 from http://www.worldvaluessurvey.org/

World Values Survey (n.d.-d). WVSA Requirements for Sampling. Retrieved June 23, 2012 from http://www.worldvaluessurvey.org/wvs/articles/folder_published/article_base_136/files/WVSA_requirements_for_sampling.pdf

World Values Survey (2011). Integrated Questionnaire. Retrieved June 23, 2012 from http://www.asep-sa.org/wvs/wvs_1981-2008/WVS_1981-2008_IntegratedQuestionnaire.pdf

World Values Survey (2012). World values survey brochure. Retrieved December 10, 2013 from http://www.iffs.se/wp-content/uploads/2012/12/WVS-brochure-web.pdf

Zikmund, W. G. (2003). *Business research methods* (7th ed.). South Western: Thomson Learning.

Zikmund, W. G., Carr, J. C., & Griffin, M. (2012). *Business research methods* (9th ed.). Mason, OH: South Western.

APPENDIX A: List of Countries Included in the Study

Albania, Algeria, Andorra, Argentina, Armenia, Australia, Azerbaijan, Bangladesh, Belarus, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Brazil, Bulgaria, Burkina Faso, Canada, Chile, China, Colombia, Croatia, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Dominican Republic, Egypt, El Salvador, Estonia, Ethiopia, Finland, France, Georgia, Germany, Ghana, Great Britain, Guatemala, Hong Kong, Hungary, India, Indonesia, Iran, Iraq, Israel, Italy, Japan, Jordan, Kyrgyzstan, Latvia, Lithuania, Macedonia, Malaysia, Mali, Mexico, Moldova, Morocco, Netherlands, New Zealand, Nigeria, Norway, Pakistan, Peru, Philippines, Poland, Puerto Rico, Romania, Russian Federation, Rwanda, Saudi Arabia, Serbia, Serbia and Montenegro, Singapore, Slovakia, Slovenia, South Africa, South Korea, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Taiwan, Tanzania, Thailand, Trinidad and Tobago, Turkey, Uganda, Ukraine, United States, Uruguay, Venezuela, Viet Nam, Zambia, Zimbabwe.

A document that shows the countries that participated in the WVS can be downloaded from the Additional documents section of the WVS website via the following url:

http://www.asep-sa.org/wvs/EVS-WVS_ParticipatingCountries.pdf

A detailed document of the exact questions asked in each country for all the waves can be found in the 1981-2008 Integrated Questionnaire on the WVS website:

http://www.asep-sa.org/wvs/wvs_1981-2008/WVS_1981-2008_IntegratedQuestionnaire.pdf

APPENDIX B: Subset of WVS Questionnaire used in the Study

Sex of respondent:

1. Male
2. Female

Are you currently… (READ OUT AND CODE ONE ONLY)

1. Married
2. Living as married
3. Divorced
4. Separated
5. Widowed
6. Single

Have you had any children? If yes, how many?

0. No child
1. 1 child
2. 2 children
3. 3 children
4. 4 children
5. 5 children
6. 6 children
7. 7 children
8. 8 or more children

People sometimes describe themselves as belonging to the working class, middle class, or the upper or lower class. Would you describe yourself as belonging to the:

1. Upper class
2. Upper middle class
3. Lower middle class
4. Working class
5. Lower class

Now I would like to ask you something about the things which would seem to you, personally, most important if you were looking for a job. Here are some of the things many people take into account in relation to their work. Regardless of whether you're actually looking for a job, which one would you, personally, place first if you were looking for a job?

1. A good income
2. A safe job with no risk
3. Working with people that you like
4. Doing an important job

All things considered, how satisfied are you with your life as a whole these days? Please use this card to help with your answer.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Dissatisfied									Satisfied

APPENDIX C: Detailed Description of the Sample

Table C.1: Sample by relationship status

			Wave		
			1994-1999	1999-2004	2005-2007
Relationship status	Married	n	45,226	36,018	45,674
		%	59.9%	59.1%	55.2%
	Living together as married	n	4,205	3,006	6,705
		%	5.6%	4.9%	8.1%
	Divorced	n	2,850	1,322	2,725
		%	3.8%	2.2%	3.3%
	Separated	n	1,345	782	1,581
		%	1.8%	1.3%	1.9%
	Widowed	n	5,102	2,809	5,169
		%	6.8%	4.6%	6.2%
	Single/Never married	n	16,764	16,826	20,877
		%	22.2%	27.6%	25.2%
	Divorced, Separated or Widowed	n		125	
		%		0.2%	
	Living apart but stead relationship	n		53	
		%		0.1%	
Total	n		75,492	60,946	82,731
	%		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Table C.2: Sample by whether respondents were parents or not

			Wave		
			1994-1999	1999-2004	2005-2007
Have any children	No	n	19,866	18,067	22,348
		%	26.5%	30.7%	28.8%
	Yes	n	54,986	40,749	55,344
		%	73.5%	69.3%	71.2%
Total	n		74,852	58,816	77,692
	%		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Table C.3: Sample by number of children

			Wave		
			1994-1999	1999-2004	2005-2007
How many children do you have	No child	n	19,866	18,067	22,348
		%	26.5%	30.7%	28.8%
	1 - 2 children	n	34,109	19,935	31,937
		%	45.6%	33.9%	41.1%
	3 - 4 children	n	15,807	13,458	16,284
		%	21.1%	22.9%	21.0%
	5 or more children	n	5,070	7,356	7,123
		%	6.8%	12.5%	9.2%
Total	n		74,852	58,816	77,692
	%		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Table C.4: Sample by social class

			Wave		
			1994-1999	1999-2004	2005-2007
Social class (subjective)	Upper class	n	1,299	1,081	927
		%	1.7%	1.9%	1.3%
	Upper middle class	n	12,589	11,522	13,092
		%	16.7%	20.1%	19.0%
	Lower middle class	n	30,304	21,248	24,765
		%	40.1%	37.0%	35.9%
	Working class	n	22,324	14,793	19,672
		%	29.6%	25.8%	28.6%
	Lower class	n	8,998	8,725	10,445
		%	11.9%	15.2%	15.2%
Total	n		75,514	57,369	68,901
	%		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Table C.5: Sample by gender

			Wave		
			1994-1999	1999-2004	2005-2007
Sex	Male	n	37,806	30,114	39,763
		%	48.1%	49.3%	48.4%
	Female	n	40,798	30,911	43,133
		%	51.9%	50.7%	52.0%
Total	n		78,602	61,025	82,896
	%		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Table C.6: Sample by Age

			Wave		
			1994-1999	1999-2004	2005-2007
Age	15-24	n	13,107	12,518	14,520
		%	16.7%	20.5%	17.6%
	25-34	n	18,957	15,904	18,635
		%	24.1%	26.1%	22.5%
	35-44	n	17,181	13,274	16,946
		%	21.9%	21.8%	20.5%
	45-54	n	12,076	9,133	13,561
		%	15.4%	15.0%	16.4%
	55-64	n	9,422	5,684	9,862
		%	12.0%	9.3%	11.9%
	65 and more years	n	7,768	4,470	9,209
		%	9.9%	7.3%	11.1%
Total	n		78,511	60,983	82,733
	%		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

APPENDIX D: Detailed Statistical Results

Contingency Tables

Table D.1: Work values by wave and gender

		1994-1999			1999-2004			2005-2007		
		Sex		Total	Sex		Total	Sex		Total
		Male	Female		Male	Female		Male	Female	
A good income	n	12,759	12,804	25,563	6,800	6,847	13,647	13,194	13,217	26,411
	%	37.1%	34.7%	35.8%	36.6%	35.3%	35.9%	37.0%	34.4%	35.7%
A safe job with no risk	n	11,040	11,620	22,660	3,719	6,826	13,545	12,171	13,308	25,479
	%	32.1%	31.5%	31.8%	36.2%	35.2%	35.7%	34.2%	34.6%	34.4%
Working with people you like	n	3,371	4,438	7,809	1,410	1,775	3,185	3,503	4,077	7,580
	%	9.8%	12.0%	11.0%	7.6%	9.1%	8.4%	9.8%	10.6%	10.2%
Doing an important job	n	7,043	7,883	14,926	3,638	3,970	7,608	6,750	7,861	14,611
	%	20.5%	21.4%	20.9%	19.6%	20.4%	20.0%	19.0%	20.4%	19.7%
Do something for community	n	193	158	351						
	%	0.6%	0.4%	0.5%						
Total	n	34,406	36,903	71,309	18,567	19,418	37,985	35,618	38,463	74,081
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Table D.2: Work values by relationship status for wave 5

		Married	Living together as married	Divorced	Separated	Widowed	Single/ Never married	Total
A good income	n	14,816	1,744	866	449	1,534	6,927	26,356
	%	36.1%	30.9%	33.6%	32.5%	33.9%	36.9%	35.8%
A safe job with no risk	n	14,623	1,988	777	451	1,736	5,886	25,461
	%	35.7%	35.2%	29.5%	32.4%	38.4%	31.4%	34.4%
Working with people you like	n	3,965	630	313	151	532	1,979	7,570
	%	9.7%	11.2%	11.9%	10.9%	11.8%	10.5%	10.2%
Doing an important job	n	7,611	1,282	659	330	723	3,974	14,579
	%	19.6%	22.7%	25.0%	23.9%	16.0%	21.2%	19.7%
Total	n	41,015	5,644	2,635	1,381	4,525	18,766	73,966
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100%	100.0%

Table D.3: Work values by relationship status split by gender

			A good income	A safe job with no risk	Working with people you like	Doing an important job	Total
Married	**Male**	n	7,421	7,227	1,826	3,593	20,067
		%	37.0%	36.0%	9.1%	17.9%	100.0%
	Female	n	7,380	7,369	2,137	4,008	20,894
		%	35.3%	35.3%	10.2%	19.2%	100.0%
Living together as married	**Male**	n	884	971	318	547	2,720
		%	32.5%	35.7%	11.7%	20.1%	100.0%
	Female	n	858	1017	310	735	2,920
		%	29.4%	34.8%	10.6%	25.2%	100.0%
Divorced	**Male**	n	324	297	126	247	994
		%	32.6%	29.9%	12.7%	24.8%	100.0%
	Female	n	562	480	186	411	1639
		%	34.3%	29.3%	11.3%	25.1%	100.0%
Separated	**Male**	n	176	165	61	137	539
		%	32.7%	30.6%	11.3%	25.4%	100.0%
	Female	n	273	286	90	192	841
		%	32.5%	34.0%	10.7%	22.8%	100.0%
Widowed	**Male**	n	341	383	92	176	992
		%	34.4%	38.6%	9.3%	17.7%	100.0%
	Female	n	1,192	1,352	440	547	3,531
		%	33.8%	38.3%	12.5%	15.5%	100.0%
Single/Never married	**Male**	n	4,004	3,106	1,070	2,025	10,205
		%	39.2%	30.4%	10.5%	19.8%	100.0%
	Female	n	2,919	2772	906	1943	8,540
		%	34.2%	32.5%	10.6%	22.8%	100.0%
Total	**Male**	n	13,150	12,149	3493	6,725	35,517
		%	37.0%	34.2%	9.8%	18.9%	100.0%
	Female	n	13,184	13,276	4,069	7836	38,365
		%	34.4%	34.6%	10.6%	20.4%	100.0%

Table D.4: Work values by social class for wave 5

		Upper class	Upper middle class	Lower middle class	Working class	Lower class	Total
A good income	n	319	3,891	7,970	6,484	4,133	22,797
	%	35.9%	30.7%	34.5%	36.7%	44.1%	35.8%
A safe job with no risk	n	274	3,771	8,181	6,835	3,385	22,446
	%	30.9%	29.8%	35.4%	38.7%	36.1%	35.2%
Working with people you like	n	97	1,339	2,382	1,929	798	6,242
	%	10.9%	10.6%	10.3%	9.2%	8.5%	9.8%
Doing an important job	n	198	3,666	4,562	2,727	1,050	12,203
	%	22.3%	28.9%	19.8%	15.4%	11.2%	19.2%
Total	n	888	12,667	23,095	17,672	9,366	63,688
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Table D.5: Work values by number of children for wave 5

		0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8 +	Total
A good income	n	7,432	4,348	6,215	3,268	1,840	1,017	631	326	478	25,555
	%	35.6%	37.2%	33.8%	32.4%	37.8%	39.0%	42.0%	37.8%	42.2%	35.5%
A safe job with no risk	n	6,433	4,167	6,672	3,741	1,788	989	516	308	383	24,997
	%	30.8%	35.6%	36.3%	37.1%	36.7%	37.9%	34.3%	35.7%	33.8%	34.7%
Working with people you like	n	2,299	1,101	1,868	1,054	467	233	159	92	111	7,384
	%	11.0%	9.4%	10.2%	10.4%	9.6%	8.9%	10.6%	10.7%	9.8%	10.3%
Doing an important job	n	4,696	2,085	3,628	2,033	777	371	198	137	162	14,087
	%	22.5%	17.8%	19.7%	20.1%	15.9%	14.2%	13.2%	15.9%	14.3%	19.6%
Total	n	20,860	11,701	18,383	10,096	4,872	2,610	1,504	863	1,134	72,023
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Table D.6: Overall life satisfaction by work values and gender

			Satisfaction with your life									
			Dissatisfied	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Satisfied
A good income	Male	n	485	390	740	838	1909	1630	2170	2419	1103	1362
		%	3.7%	3.0%	5.7%	6.4%	14.6%	12.5%	16.6%	18.5%	8.5%	10.4%
	Female	n	528	415	801	904	1981	1698	2105	2178	1110	1318
		%	4.0%	3.2%	6.1%	6.9%	15.2%	13.0%	16.1%	16.7%	8.5%	10.1%
	Total	n	1013	805	1541	1742	3890	3328	4275	4597	2213	2680
		%	3.9%	3.1%	5.9%	6.7%	14.9%	12.8%	16.4%	17.6%	8.5%	10.3%
A safe job with no risk	Male	n	388	272	593	665	1658	1345	2101	2387	1134	1490
		%	3.2%	2.3%	4.9%	5.5%	13.8%	11.2%	17.5%	19.8%	9.4%	12.4%
	Female	n	407	312	613	757	1962	1541	2083	2564	1284	1645
		%	3.1%	2.4%	4.7%	5.7%	14.9%	11.7%	15.8%	19.5%	9.8%	12.5%
	Total	n	795	584	1206	1422	3620	2886	4184	4951	2418	3135
		%	3.2%	2.3%	4.8%	5.6%	14.4%	11.5%	16.6%	19.6%	9.6%	12.4%
Working with people you like	Male	n	103	68	122	133	388	379	636	825	385	429
		%	3.0%	2.0%	3.5%	3.8%	11.2%	10.9%	18.3%	23.8%	11.1%	12.4%
	Female	n	97	75	141	169	430	430	701	953	503	544
		%	2.4%	1.9%	3.5%	4.2%	10.6%	10.6%	17.3%	23.6%	12.4%	13.5%
	Total	n	200	143	263	302	818	809	1337	1778	888	973
		%	2.7%	1.9%	3.5%	4.0%	10.9%	10.8%	17.8%	23.7%	11.8%	13.0%
Doing an important job	Male	n	145	105	190	247	694	653	1144	1715	924	900
		%	2.2%	1.6%	2.8%	3.7%	10.3%	9.7%	17.0%	25.5%	13.8%	13.4%
	Female	n	163	86	170	270	781	700	1298	2019	1161	1155
		%	2.1%	1.1%	2.2%	3.5%	10.0%	9.0%	16.6%	25.9%	14.9%	14.8%
	Total	n	308	191	360	517	1475	1353	2442	3734	2085	2055
		%	2.1%	1.3%	2.5%	3.6%	10.2%	9.3%	16.8%	25.7%	14.4%	14.2%
Total	Male	n	1121	835	1645	1883	4649	4007	6051	7346	3546	4181
		%	3.2%	2.4%	4.7%	5.3%	13.2%	11.4%	17.2%	20.8%	10.1%	11.9%
	Female	n	1195	888	1725	2100	5154	4369	6187	7714	4058	4662
		%	3.1%	2.3%	4.5%	5.5%	13.5%	11.5%	16.3%	20.3%	10.7%	12.3%
	Total	n	2316	1723	3370	3983	9803	8376	12238	15060	7604	8843
		%	3.2%	2.4%	4.6%	5.4%	13.4%	11.4%	16.7%	20.5%	10.4%	12.1%

Multinomial Regression

Table D.7: Case processing summary

		N	Marginal Percentage
First choice, if looking for a job	A good income	58,535	36.0%
	A safe job with no risk	55,600	34.2%
	Working with people you like	16,232	10.0%
	Doing an important job	32,312	19.9%
Wave	1994-1999	67,412	41.4%
	1999-2004	33,713	20.7%
	2005-2007	61,554	37.8%
Sex	Male	78,760	48.4%
	Female	83,919	51.6%
Relationship Status	Married	95,709	58.8%
	Living together as married	10,330	6.3%
	Divorced	5,535	3.4%
	Separated	2,978	1.8%
	Widowed	9,749	6.0%
	Single/Never married	38,378	23.6%
Valid		162,679	100.0%
Missing		20,528	
Total		183,207	
Subpopulation		1,422[a]	

a. The dependent variable has only one value observed in 186 (13.1%) subpopulations