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**The impact of work success, congruency, and individual  
differences on well being**

**Rothberg, Helen N., Ph.D.**  
City University of New York, 1990

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**THE IMPACT OF WORK SUCCESS, CONGRUENCY, AND INDIVIDUAL  
DIFFERENCES ON WELL-BEING**

by

**HELEN N. ROTHBERG**

**A dissertation submitted to the Graduate Faculty in Business in  
partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of  
Doctor of Philosophy, The City University of New York**

1990

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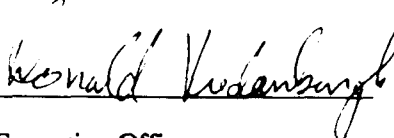
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## Abstract

The Impact of Work Success, Congruency, and Individual Differences on Well-Being

by

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The literature addressing the impact of work success on well-being is inconclusive; work success has been found both to enhance and hamper well-being. Clinical research suggests that achieving work success may produce value incongruities that result in feelings of alienation and dismay. Congruency theory research suggests that well-being is increased by a person/work environment fit. The interactive effects of work success and congruency on well-being have not been studied. This research investigated the impact of work success, congruency, and the work success/congruency interaction as moderated by individual difference variables, on well-being.

Well-being was conceptualized as having two dimensions: cognitive, reflecting life satisfaction, and affective, reflecting feelings about life. Each was measured with both single and multiple item scales. Data were gathered from the respondent and one significant other. Work success was measured objectively using job title, number of promotions and responsibility changes, and income level, and subjectively through respondent perception of success at work. Congruency, the fit between "ideal" and "attained" work values, was determined by difference scoring of two parallel work value scales. Individual difference variables included gender, negative affectivity and work role salience.

The sample consisted of 331 executives, managers, and professionals from the New York metropolitan area. Hypothesis testing primarily utilized multiple and moderated

regression analysis. Other parametric and nonparametric procedures were employed as appropriate.

Multiple regression analyses identified perceived success as the only work success variable having a significant relationship with all well-being measures. Congruency demonstrated a significant but weaker relationship with self-reported well-being. The interaction of objective work success and congruency produced significant relationships with at least one well-being analysis.

Moderated multiple regression analyses revealed that gender and NA moderated the following interactions in at least half of the well-being analyses: perceived success/congruency, promotions/congruency, and responsibility changes/congruency. WRS moderated interactions between perceived success/congruency and promotions/congruency in half of the well-being analyses, while interactions between responsibility changes/congruency and income level/congruency were significant in one well-being measure.

Methodological and conceptual limitations of the study were addressed, i.e., the findings for certain variables may be confounded by their measurement and the generalizability of findings may be hampered by the sample.

### Acknowledgements

"Far away in the sunshine are my highest inspirations.  
I may not reach them, but I can look up and see their  
beauty, believe in them, and try to follow where  
they lead". Louisa May Alcott

I began my doctoral studies with the desire to learn and with doubts as to whether or not I could achieve this goal. During this process there have been many people who have been instrumental in my accomplishment and a few deserve recognition.

From the start, Abe Korman, my mentor and dissertation chairman, believed that I had something to contribute and the aptitude to do so. He gave me the freedom to be creative and taught me the rigor I desperately needed. Throughout my professional development he has been encouraging, directive, and when necessary, pushed me to develop my abilities. At times, Abe Korman had more confidence in me than I had in myself. With his guidance and persistent support, he has assisted in the completion of this research and the development of this person.

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Elaine Eisenman was involved in the theoretical development of this research. Her contribution and continuous support gave me strength when I needed it most. She enhanced my thinking and perseverance in completing the dissertation. Ed Wolfe was instrumental in guiding me through a maze of statistical procedures and in creating a sound methodology for my research.

I am especially grateful to my family for their heartfelt support. Frieda and Martin Rothberg, my wonderful parents, did whatever they could to ease the bumps in the road and assured me that there would be a light at the end of the tunnel. My best friend and

brother, Russell Rothberg, experienced with me the emotional rollercoaster that is inevitable when one travels a long path. Although I commandeered his apartment and computer for two years, he never let me leave his home without a smile.

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## TABLE OF CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION .....	1
RESEARCH BACKGROUND .....	2
THE PURPOSE AND PLAN OF THIS RESEARCH .....	5
 CHAPTER ONE: LITERATURE REVIEW	
WELL-BEING .....	7
Research Addressing the Difference between Cognition and Affect .....	9
The Importance of Work in Well-Being Assessment .....	11
WORK SUCCESS AS A FACTOR IN WELL-BEING .....	13
WORK SUCCESS AND WELL-BEING: A REVIEW	
The Positive Impact of Achieving Work Success on Well-Being .....	15
The Negative Impact of Achieving Work Success on Well-Being .....	17
CONGRUENCY AS A FACTOR IN WELL-BEING	
The Person-Environment Fit Paradigm and Congruency .....	24
CONGRUENCY AND WELL-BEING: A REVIEW .....	25
The Nature of Work Values .....	30
THE WORK SUCCESS, CONGRUENCY INTERACTION AS A FACTOR IN WELL-BEING .....	33
THE INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES THAT MODERATE THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN WORK SUCCESS, CONGRUENCY AND WELL-BEING .....	36
Gender .....	37
Negative Affectivity .....	41
Work Role Salience .....	44
 CHAPTER TWO: THE RESEARCH MODEL	
WELL-BEING .....	47
WORK SUCCESS .....	48
WORK SUCCESS AND WELL-BEING .....	48
CONGRUENCY AND WELL-BEING	
THE PERSON ENVIRONMENT FIT PARADIGM .....	49
THE WORK SUCCESS, CONGRUENCY INTERACTION AS A FACTOR IN WELL-BEING .....	50
THE INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES VARIABLES AND THEIR MODERATING EFFECTS ON WORK SUCCESS, CONGRUENCY AND WELL-BEING .....	51
Gender .....	51
The Effect of Work Value Sets on Hypotheses 1, 2, 3 .....	52
Negative Affectivity .....	52
Work Role Salience .....	54
THE RESEARCH MODEL .....	55
 CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	
RESEARCH DESIGN .....	56
SAMPLE DESCRIPTION .....	57
Power Analysis .....	57
Sampling Procedures .....	58
Sample Demographics .....	61
MEASUREMENT PROCEDURE .....	66
Well-Being .....	71
Affective Dimension .....	71

Cognitive Dimension.....	73
Work Success.....	77
Objective Measurement of Work Success .....	77
Subjective Measurement of Work Success.....	80
Congruency .....	81
Determination of the Fit Between "Ideal" Work Values and "Present" Work Values.....	81
Calculating Congruency .....	83
Negative Affectivity.....	86
Work Role Salience.....	87
DATA ANALYSIS	
General Analyses.....	90
HYPOTHESIS TESTING	
Main Effects.....	92
Interaction Hypothesis for Work Success and Congruency.....	97
Interaction Hypothesis for Gender.....	98
Interaction Hypotheses for Negative Affectivity and Work Role Salience.....	102
CHAPTER FOUR: RESEARCH RESULTS	
PRELIMINARY ANALYSES	
Correlational Analyses.....	110
Distribution Effects Tests.....	111
HYPOTHESIS TESTING ANALYSES.....	115
CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION	
EVALUATION OF RESEARCH RESULTS	
The Impact of Work Success on Well-Being.....	206
The Impact of Congruency and its Interaction with Work Success on Well-Being .....	209
The Impact of Individual Differences on Well-Being .....	212
Disparities in Self Report and Significant Others Perception of Respondent Well-Being.....	215
LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH	
Variable Operationalization and Scale Construction .....	218
Methodological Issues .....	220
THEORETICAL IMPLICATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH.....	221
PRACTICAL APPLICATIONS.....	224
APPENDICES	
APPENDIX A: SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE.....	226
APPENDIX B: PRE-TEST ANALYSIS .....	243
APPENDIX C: SAMPLE REQUEST.....	278
APPENDIX D: SCALE CORRELATION MATRICES.....	282
APPENDIX E: PARAMETRIC HYPOTHESES TESTS .....	288
APPENDIX F: RESULTS OF NONPARAMETRIC HYPOTHESES TEST ...	294
REFERENCES .....	300

## TABLE OF TABLES

Table 1. Survey Distribution Methods .....	61
Table 2. Sample Occupation Composite .....	62
Table 3. Sample Industry Composite.....	64
Table 4. Summary of the Proposed Model's Significant Dimensions.....	67
Table 5a. Descriptive Statistics and Reliability for Questionnaire Scales .....	68
Table 5b. Descriptive Statistics for Single Item Variable Questions.....	69
Table 5c. Frequency Distribution and Scale Description of Single Item Questions.....	69
Table 6a. Average Importance Ratings of Domains and Regression Coefficients for Predicting Life Satisfaction from Each Domain Score, and Domain Stability Coefficients.....	74
Table 6b. A Summary of Research Conducted to Determine the Impact of Life Domains on Life Satisfaction Assessment.....	75
Table 7. Coding Scheme for Respondent's Reported Job Title.....	79
Table 8. Kolmogorov Smirnov Z Test for Normality of Questionnaire Scales.....	91
Table 9. Summary Results of MANOVA, Testing for the Effect of Survey Distribution Method on the Research Model.....	111
Table 10. Results of Crosstabulation Analysis of General Affective Well-Being.....	113
Table 11. Summary Results of the Regression of Well-Being on Work Success.....	116
Table 12. Summary Results of the Regression of Well-Being on Congruency.....	117
Table 13. Summary Results of the Regression of Well-Being on the Independent Interactions of Work Success and Congruency.....	119
Table 14. Summary Results of the Regression of Well-Being on the Interaction Between Work Success and Congruency.....	120
Table 15. Summary Results of the Regression of Well-Being on the Interaction Among Work Success, Congruency and Gender.....	123
Table 16. Comparative Demographic Description of Work Value Groups .....	128
Table 17. Work Success Description of Work Value Groups .....	130
Table 18. Summary Results of the Regression of Well-Being on Work Success for Work Value Groups. (Hypothesis 1).....	131
Table 19. Summary Results of the Regression of Well-Being on Congruency for Work Value Groups. (Hypothesis 2).....	133
Table 20. Summary Results of the Regression of Well-Being on the Interaction Between Work Success and Congruency for Work Value Groups (Hypothesis 3).....	135
Table 21. Summary Results of the Regression of Well-Being on The Interaction Among Gender, Congruency, and Work Success for Different Work Value Groups. (Hypothesis 4).....	139
Table 22. Comparative Results for the Sample and Work Value Groups of the Regression of Well-Being on the Interaction Among Work Success, Congruency and Gender.....	144
Table 23. Summary Results of the Regression of Well-Being on Independent Interactions Between Negative Affectivity and Work Success.....	147
Table 24. Summary Results of the Regression of Well-Being on the Interaction Between Negative Affectivity and Work Success.....	148
Table 25. Summary Results of the Regression of Well-Being on the Independent Interactions Between Negative Affectivity and Congruency.....	150
Table 26. Summary Results of the Regression of Well-Being on the Interaction Between Negative Affectivity and Congruency.....	151
Table 27. Summary Results of the Regression of Well-Being on the Interaction Between Work Success, Congruency and Negative Affectivity.....	154

Table 28. Summary Results of the Regression of Well-Being on the Interaction Between Negative Affectivity and Work Success for Different Work Value Groups. (Hypothesis 6a).....	157
Table 29. Summary Results of the Regression of Well-Being on the Interaction Between Negative Affectivity and Congruency for Different Work Value Groups. (Hypothesis 6b) .....	162
Table 30. Summary Results of the Regression of Well-Being on the Interaction Between Negative Affectivity and Congruency for Different Work Value Groups. (Hypothesis 6c).....	165
Table 31. Comparative Results for the Sample and Work Value Groups of the Regression of Well-Being on the Interaction Between Work Success and Negative Affectivity. (Hypothesis 6a).....	170
Table 32. Comparative Results for the Sample and Work Value Groups of the Regression of Well-Being on the Interaction Between Congruency and Negative Affectivity. (Hypothesis 6b).....	171
Table 33. Comparative Results for the Sample and Work Value Groups of the Regression of Well-Being on the Interaction Among Work Success, Congruency and Negative Affectivity (Hypothesis 6c).....	172
Table 34. Summary Results of the Regression of Well-Being on the Independent Interactions Between Work Success and Work Role Salience. ....	174
Table 35. Summary Results of the Regression of Well-Being on the Interaction Between Work Role Salience and Work Success.....	175
Table 36. Summary Results of the Regression of Well-Being on the Independent Interactions of Work Role Salience and Congruency. ....	177
Table 37. Summary Results of the Regression of Well-Being on the Interaction Between Work Role Salience and Congruency.....	178
Table 38. Summary Results of the Regression of Well-Being on the Interaction Between Work Success, Congruency and Work Role Salience. ....	181
Table 39. Summary Results of the Regression of Well-Being on the Interaction Between Work Role Salience and Work Success for Different Work Value Groups. (Hypothesis 7a).....	184
Table 40. Summary Results of the Regression of Well-Being on the Interaction Between Work Role Salience and Congruency for Different Work Value Groups. (Hypothesis 7b).....	188
Table 41. Summary Results of the Regression of Well-Being on the Interaction Between Work Success, Congruency and Work Role Salience for Different Work Value Groups. (Hypothesis 7c).....	192
Table 42. Comparative Results for the Sample and Work Value Groups of the Regression of Well-Being on the Interaction Between Work Success and Work Role Salience. (Hypothesis 7a).....	197
Table 43. Comparative Results for the Sample and Work Value Groups of the Regression of Well-Being on the Interaction Between Congruency and Work Role Salience. (Hypothesis 7b).....	198
Table 44. Comparative Results for the Sample and Work Value Groups of the Regression of Well-Being on the Interaction Among Work Success, Congruency and Work Role Salience. (Hypothesis 7c).....	199
Table 45. Comparative Summary Results of Hypothesis Testing for the Unstratified Sample and Work Value Groups..	201
Table B1. Frequency Distribution for "Ideal" and "Actual" Work Value Scales .....	259
Table B2. Frequency Distribution for the Cognitive Well-Being Scale .....	260
Table B3. Frequency Distribution for Affective Well-Being Scale .....	261
Table B4. Frequency Distribution for the Co-Worker and Mate Well-being Scales .....	262
Table B5. Frequency Distribution for the Negative Affectivity Scale .....	263
Table B6. Frequency Distribution for the Work Role Salience Scale.....	264

Table B7. Frequency Distribution of the Perceived Success Question for Respondent and Significant Others.....	265
Table B8. Frequency Analysis of the Difference Between Self and Significant Others' Perception of Respondent Work Success.....	265
Table D1. Pearson Correlations Among Questionnaire Scales.....	283
Table D2. Questionnaire Scale and Item Pearson Correlations.....	285
Table E1. Summary Results of: Zero Order Correlations Between Work Success and Well-Being and Partial Correlations When Controlling for Congruency. (Hypothesis 1).....	289
Table E2. Summary Results of: Significant Zero Order Correlations Between Congruency and Well-Being and Partial Correlations when Controlling for Work Success (Hypothesis 2).....	289
Table E3. Summary Results for Females and Males of Significant Zero Order Correlations Between Work Success and Well Being and Partial Correlations Controlling for Congruency, Across Congruency Levels. (Hypothesis 4).....	290
Table E4. Summary Results for Females and Males of Significant Zero Order Correlations Between Congruency and Well-Being, and Partial Correlations When Controlling for Work Success, Across Work Success Levels.....	290
Table E5. Summary Results of Significant Zero Order Correlations Between Work Success and Well-Being, Partial Correlations When Controlling for Congruency Across Three Levels of Negative Affectivity. (Hypothesis 6a).....	291
Table E6. Summary Results of Significant Zero Order and Pearson Correlations When Controlling for Work Success Across Three Levels of Negative Affectivity. (Hypothesis 6b).....	291
Table E7. Summary Results of Significant Zero Order and Partial Correlations When Controlling for Work Success Across Work Role Salience Levels. (Hypothesis 7a).....	292
Table E8. Summary Results of: Zero Order and Partial Correlations When Controlling for Work Success Across Work Role Salience Levels (Hypothesis 7b).....	293
Table F1. Summary Results of Spearman Rank Correlations Between Work Success and Well-Being. (Hypothesis 1).....	295
Table F2. Summary Results of Spearman Rank Correlations Between Congruency and Well-Being Across Work Success Levels (Hypothesis 2).....	295
Table F3. Summary Results for Males and Females of Significant Spearman Rank Correlations Between Work Success and Well-Being, Across Congruency Levels. (Hypothesis 4).....	296
Table F4. Summary Results of Significant Spearman Rank Correlations for Males and Females Between Congruency and Well-Being Across Work Success Levels. (Hypothesis 4).....	297
Table F5. Summary Results of Significant Spearman Rank Correlations Between Work Success and Well-Being Across Negative Affectivity Levels. (Hypothesis 6a).....	298
Table F6. Summary Results of Significant Spearman Rank Correlations Between Congruency and Well-Being Across Negative Affectivity Levels. (Hypothesis 6b).....	298
Table F7. Summary Results of Significant Spearman Rank Correlations Between Work Success and Well-Being, Across Work Role Salience Levels. (Hypothesis 7a).....	299
Table F8. Summary Results of Significant Spearman Rank Correlations Between Congruency and Well-Being Across Work Role Salience Levels. (Hypothesis 7b).....	299

## INTRODUCTION

A popular tenet of American culture suggests that a person can achieve success through hard work, ambition, and persistence. Moreover, the attainment of success can result in life satisfaction and well-being. This is the essence of the American Dream. Work is also viewed as an integrating function as it provides people with self-identity, status, esteem, money, and friends- factors which influence perceptions of quality of life (Andrews & Withey, 1974; Bradburn, 1969; Campbell, Converse, & Rogers, 1976; Pryor & Reeves, 1982 ). Work also " represents distinctive sub-cultures which function to differentiate people in terms of their kind of life style" (Pavalko, 1971 p.198). Well-being is influenced by work specifically through the resources it provides to fund non-work activities (Near, Rice, & Hunt, 1984).

According to the American Dream, well-being and not discontent is supposed to be the reward of hard work along with the money and status that result from it. However, the survey findings presented by Andrews and Withey (1974) and Campbell et.al. (1976) portray many Americans who have never been more materially and professionally successful, yet who indicate dissatisfaction with their personal lives and social conditions. Although surprising, these results support the work of Milner (1968) and Slater (1970) who argue that the pursuit of material wealth may result in personal and social alienation. Thus, the paradoxical interplay between work success (viz., income, status, position) and well-being has been receiving research attention from psychologists, psychiatrists, management theorists and career development specialists.

## RESEARCH BACKGROUND

One of this society's indicators of the achievement of the American Dream and work success is income. People in higher income brackets are generally expected to report higher levels of well-being than people in lower income brackets. In a survey designed to investigate the importance of money in American society, Rubenstein (1981) found that 74% of the respondents agreed with the statement: "in America, money is how we keep score". He also discovered that people who believe in the American Dream perceive income as an indicator of intelligence and life success. In another national survey, Yankelovich (1979) found that material satisfaction has become central to our views of work. Based on the "materialistic work ethic" (Korman, Mahler, & Omran 1983), life satisfaction is actually an outcome of the extent to which one has the funds to purchase consumer goods and services.

Another indicator of success is the occupation or profession that has upward mobility at its core. As Merton comments: "American society comes as close as any in history to arguing that going up in the world is an absolute value" (1964: 218). Sarason (1977) concurs by suggesting that in American society professional and managerial careers are desirable as these types of work accrue prestige, provide challenge and thus have the propensity to yield life satisfaction. In his study of operative workers, Kornhauser (1965) found that life satisfaction increases as one ascends the organization hierarchy. This finding is also supported by Campbell et al.'s (1976) national survey and by Srivastava's (1978) research on managers.

In a clinical study of people with successful careers, La Bier (1986) suggests that the emphasis our society has placed on money as an indicator of success tends to crowd other dimensions of human experience and the feelings of satisfaction that can be derived from personal effort. He comments: "An emphasis on money tends to make one a one dimensional individual, alienated from other aspects of human experience" (p.5). La Bier

views the material rewards of work success as a substitute for filling the emotional void that the focus on work success creates.

Similar themes are reported by Korman and Korman (1980) in their study of the managerial experience. They suggest that successful people may become dissatisfied with life for a variety of reasons. Disconfirmed expectations can result when the material reward that work success procures does not concurrently result in greater life satisfaction. The constant tug between work and non-work life may cause contradictory role demands and stress. The hierarchical and political nature of organizational membership has the potential to create a sense of external control over one's life (La Bier agrees with Korman & Korman on this point in that the successful employee has been forced to compromise his/her values in order to conform to organizational demands). The loss of affiliative satisfactions as relationships are sacrificed for the sake of achievement may result in feelings of personal and social alienation .

Theorists focusing on vocational and organizational selection have posited that congruency, a person environment fit between the worker and his/her profession, and organization relationship (Caplan, 1987; Holland, 1985, 1973), may play a role in the interactions among work, life satisfaction and work performance (viz., Holland, 1985 ). This school of thought posits that personalities, skills and work values, and organization environments can be matched. If such a match is achieved, i.e., the person and work setting have congruent characteristics, then it is posited that well-being will accrue. However, empirical findings have demonstrated this argument to be inconclusive (Pervin, 1987; Spokane, 1987). Thus, new conceptualizations of the person environment fit paradigm, and the role that it plays in personal well-being require further investigation.

In his clinical study of successful people, Derr (1986) argues that successful people can be dissatisfied because although they have achieved work success, it may not be in the way the person had originally desired. Therefore, the person perceives him/herself as a failure since success was not accomplished in the desired fashion. Derr suggests that in

order for work success to be a fulfilling experience, congruency must exist between the person's preferred work success orientation and the work success orientation that has been attained. The fit mechanism in Derr's five-category framework of work values is between ideal work values and those provided by his/her work setting. This value orientation of congruency is very promising since the dilemma between work success and well-being as identified by Korman and Korman (1980) and La Bier (1986) seems to be a result of work value conflicts, i.e., achievement vs. affiliation, or personal values vs. organizational values.

## THE PURPOSE AND PLAN OF THIS RESEARCH

The importance of discerning the relationship between work success and well-being, and the role that congruency plays, not only appear significant on a societal level but seem to have practical implications for career counselors and human resource specialists as well. An understanding of a person's work value orientation can assist career counselors in identifying the occupations a person should pursue as well as the type of organization the person should join. Employee work value orientations may also assist human resource specialists in developing corporate and human resource management policies that will serve to attract, retain and motivate talented, competent and loyal workers.

One of the most difficult organizational decisions is whom to promote or "select in" as middle or upper managers. Some work value orientations result in workers who strive for highly visible promotions. Others result in workers who prefer not to be promoted into managerial levels which are characteristically more administrative and offer less opportunity for creativity. Conversely, identifying each type of worker a priori can assist in selecting that person who not only has the best skills and talents, but who also has the motivation to take such an organizational role. Moreover, compensation packages can be structured in many ways. A better understanding of work values can also facilitate the process of arriving at a good combination of raises, perks, benefits and other company options.

The framework presented in this study is designed to elucidate the relationship between work success, congruency and well-being, and the role that individual difference variables may play in moderating these relationships. More specifically, the proposed model addresses the following research questions:

- How does work success influence well-being?
- How does congruency influence well-being?
- Are there individual differences that may moderate the relationships of work success and congruency with well-being?

Although the needed theory to answer these questions does not now exist, the organizational behavior literature contains concepts which can be employed to begin structuring one. This study's objective is to begin to develop answers to the research questions and to embark upon the development of a theory of work and well-being that both management theorists and career development specialists can use.

This investigation will commence with a literature review which identifies the research concepts and their relationships. This chapter provides the groundwork for Chapter Two which summarizes Chapter One's findings in an effort to generate hypotheses. The research model is then presented.

Chapter Three will present the study's research methodology. The population to be investigated and sampling techniques are discussed. The chosen research design and measurement selections are delineated as well as the data analysis techniques to be employed in hypothesis testing. Research results are presented in Chapter Four. Discussion of the research results and their implications will conclude this investigation in Chapter Five.

## CHAPTER ONE: LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter will review the literature that addresses the impact of work success, congruency and individual difference variables on well-being. The purpose of this review is to identify and define salient research concepts and their relationships which will serve as the base upon which a research model is developed upon which hypotheses are generated. Identification of the well-being concept will begin this discussion as it is the conceptual dependent variable and thus serves as the major focus of this study. The literature will then be organized as a response to the research questions presented in the introduction.

### WELL-BEING

Quality of life is the objective and subjective experience of a person's existence. Objective life quality reflects economic and social conditions as measured by social indicators. Subjective life quality reflects personal well-being; perceptions and feelings about life (Andrews & Withey, 1974; Campbell, 1980; Campbell, et.al., 1976 ). In this study well-being reflects an individual's subjective quality of life, operationalized as life satisfaction and happiness, each of which represent different components of well-being (Rothberg, 1985).

Well-being is a psychological state of a person in relation to oneself and the world around him/her. It has two dimensions; an affective dimension and a cognitive dimension, each of which reflect different elements of psychological functioning.

Cognition reflects the process whereby relativism enters into judgments of satisfaction. Satisfactions derive from aspirations and standards of comparison. A person's level of satisfaction results from his/her evaluation of the perceived discrepancies between ambitions and achievements (Campbell, 1980; Campbell et.al.,1976; McKennell

& Andrews, 1983 ). If the perceived discrepancy is small, then the level of satisfaction is high. If the perceived discrepancy is large, then the level of satisfaction is low. Thus, a frame of reference exists against which current environmental circumstances are evaluated<sup>1</sup>. This cognitive experience is the basis upon which researchers have created measures of life satisfaction (Andrews & Withey, 1976; Campbell et.al., 1976; Near, Smith, Hunt & Rice, 1983 ).

Affect, on the other hand, refers to the individual's emotional-feeling state that is not tied to a cognitive frame of reference (Andrews, 1978; McKennell & Andrews, 1983). Where cognition infers a mental process, affect infers a visceral process. Affect is operationalized generally as happiness and specifically by the components of positive and negative affect (Bradburn, 1969). Positive affect represents a feeling state composed of excitement, interest and elation. This state is reflective of the degree to which an individual is involved in the environment around him/her, has an active interest in the world, belongs to organizations, has friends and is sociable. Conversely, negative affect represents a feeling state which includes worry, unhappiness and loneliness. This state is reflected in feelings of alienation, interpersonal tensions, anxiety and maladjustment to life domains. According to Bradburn (1969), happiness is a quality of experience (not behaviors) that arises from the relative prevalence of good and bad feelings, or positive and negative affect.

Positive and negative affect are thought to be independent of one another, where an increase in positive affect does not indicate a decrease in negative affect. Further, these dimensions have been shown to correlate with different items. The independence of these two dimensions has been supported empirically, employing a variety of methodologies

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<sup>1</sup> This relationship has its conceptual roots in Kurt Lewin's " Field Theory". Briefly, this theory posits that behavior is determined by the person and the environment which together comprise the life space. The life space represents psychological reality and encompasses the environment as it is perceived by the person. The perceived environment is influenced by needs, motives and values and influences the person. In this way the person and environment jointly determine action (Weiner, 1980). Thus, how a person assesses a particular attribute of a specific domain is dependent upon: how he/she perceives the attribute and the standard against which he judges that attribute.

(Andrews & McKennell, 1980; Andrews & Withey, 1976; Campbell et.al., 1976; Diener & Emmons, 1984; Harding, 1982; Heady, Holstrom & Wearing 1984; Strunpell, 1974; Warr, & Brownbridge 1983; Zanna & Reich, 1983 ).

Satisfaction infers evaluation and judgment, and is defined as the assessment of the overall conditions of existence as derived from a comparison of one's aspirations to goals attained. Affect implies emotional reactions and is defined as the level or balance of happiness that people feel towards their current state of affairs. Empirical research has demonstrated these two concepts, satisfaction and happiness, to be different (Diener, 1984; Diener & Emmons, 1984; McKennell, 1978; McKennell & Andrews, 1983; Michalos, 1980; Zajonc, 1980; ). Many researchers have used one of these two dimensions, satisfaction or happiness, to assess well-being. Critics (Bunge, 1975; Schneider, 1976) have called for the development of a research framework within which well-being may be more consistently conceptualized. Therefore, both dimensions are engaged in determining well-being in this study. The discussion which follows reviews the empirical research that demonstrates the differences between these two dimensions and thus the need to employ them both in determining well-being.

### Research Addressing the Difference between Cognition and Affect

In an article reviewing empirical research designed to ascertain whether there is a difference between "Feeling and Thinking", Zajonc (1980) concludes,

Affective reactions to a stimulus may be acquired by virtue of experience with that stimulus and need not be accompanied by--an elementary cognitive process(163), -- it being highly probable that separation between cognition and affect exists (167).

Thus, if affect and cognition do differ, the measures employed in their assessment should maintain this distinction.

Andrews and Withey (1976), Campbell et.al., (1976), Bradburn (1969) and Kornhauser (1965) discovered measures of happiness and satisfaction to behave differently for different age groups. Younger people were found to be happier with life in general and less satisfied with life in general, where the reverse relationship surfaced for older people. Also, in reliability assessment, measures of satisfaction consistently demonstrate more stability than do happiness measures (Andrews & Withey, 1976; Atkinson, 1982; Campbell et.al., 1976). This result supports a distinction between the two dimensions as cognitive processes are conceptualized as being less temporal than affective processes.

Andrews and Withey (1976) and Campbell, et.al., (1976) developed and selected measures for studying national survey samples. McKennell (1978) then differentially assessed these scales, finding measures of satisfaction and happiness to be statistically insignificant. Other researchers have employed elaborate path-models to evaluate the performance of multidimensional and global measures of satisfaction and happiness ( Andrews & McKennell, 1980; McKennell & Andrews, 1983,1980; Michalos, 1980). Among their findings was evidence that cognitive and affective dimensions influence well-being evaluations differently. Cognitive evaluations of well-being require people to judge whether they have achieved their goals in a variety of life domains such as, work, family, and leisure time. Judgments regarding domain evaluations culminate in peoples' general perception of their life satisfaction. Affective evaluations of well-being elicit an individual's emotions and are made with regard to a person's feelings about his/her life, lending support to the finding that affective evaluations are more temporal in nature, while cognitive evaluations are more stable. As Michalos (1980) concludes,

--using path analysis, confirmation was found in a dozen domains for a model which has satisfaction as a function of a perceived goal achievement gap and (happiness) as a function of experience ( 471).

Thus, well-being reflects a person's satisfactions and feelings of happiness with life in general and with specific life domains.

### The Importance of Work in Well-Being Assessment

Before consideration of the impact that work success has on well-being, a brief discussion of why the activity of work would influence well-being is in order.

Researchers posit that work, defined as participation in the labor force, plays an important role in providing goods and services for society and creating quality in peoples' lives (Andrews & Withey, 1976; Campbell et.al., 1976; Near, Rice & Hunt, 1980,1978; Pryor & Reeves, 1982; Quinn & Shepard,1972). Well-being and quality of life assessment are influenced by work through the time work leaves for other activities, the resources it provides to fund those activities, and the energy it requires from the worker which further limits involvement in other activities (Near, Smith, Rice, & Hunt, 1984). Neff (1968) suggests that in western cultures work is thought to be the "path" toward self-improvement.

Work is also viewed as an integrating function, as it provides people with self-identity, status, esteem, money, friends and structure factors which have an impact on well-being perceptions ( Andrews & Withey, 1976; Bradburn, 1969; Campbell et.al, 1976; Kornhauser,1965; Pryor & Reeves,1982). The effects of work most often operationalized as dimensions of job satisfaction can, according to published research, vary in their range of influence on well-being assessment.

Wilensky (1960) developed the notion of the "spillover hypothesis" whereby events at work and their consequent attitudinal and behavioral manifestations tend to influence a person's life outside of work. Research has determined that negative experiences at work can have significant effects on a person's non-work life. Near, Smith, Rice, & Hunt (1984) developed a model that demonstrates how job-related stress can affect employees' perception of well-being, and how dissatisfactions stemming from the work role can detract from their overall life satisfaction. Lang (1985), Burke and Deszca (1982), and Korman,

Wittig-Berman and Lang (1982) discovered that negative experiences at work were significant factors in managers' feelings of alienation.

One manifestation of work is the occupation or profession that a person is engaged in. Occupations and professions provide the boundaries and definitions of what kind of work a person performs. Economists conceptualize occupations and professions as,

--that specific activity with a market value which an individual continually pursues for the purpose of obtaining a steady flow of income; this activity also determines the social position of the individual (Taylor, 1968 p.8).

Social scientists assume occupations and professions to be: social roles that are achieved (not ascribed) to provide the fundamental link between the individual and society (Pavalko,1971), to represent a patterned set of human relations pertaining to specific work experiences and "constitute one category of statuses utilized in organizing a society" (Taylor,1968 p.165). Korman, Mahler, and Omran (1983) view work as not only providing an integrative function, but also as providing a means by which people view themselves and others. They comment,

Work,..has always been more than just a vehicle for our expression of ourselves. It is the medium through which we obtain our basic life requirements, it is a tool by which we describe, classify, and evaluate ourselves and others, and it is a mechanism by which we change ourselves and the people around us (p.181).

Within a society there is a vast range of work to be performed. The work itself is segmented into occupational and professional tasks that differ in the amount of time, energy, formal knowledge and skill that they require. A substantial part of a person's life is spent working in an occupation or profession performing some tasks (Robinson, 1977). The occupation or profession provides the worker with social status, prestige, a sense of personal identity and "represents distinctive subcultures which function to differentiate people in terms of the kind of lifestyle they exhibit" (Pavalko,1971 p.198).

Occupations and professions may differ in the nature of tasks, the income they provide, the time and energy they require, the opportunity they offer for social interaction and advancement, all of which influence well-being. Furthermore, it has been determined that occupations and professions may also influence non-work domains such as leisure time (Kaplan, 1960), organizational membership (Hageorn & Labovitz, 1968), and family stability (Kephart, 1955).

Thus work, through the occupations and professions that people pursue, the time required to perform tasks and the impact that work may have on non-work life may influence the experience of well-being.

#### WORK SUCCESS AS A FACTOR IN WELL-BEING

Work success has been conceptualized both objectively and perceptually. Objective conceptualizations of work success measure the phenomenon in accordance with an external perspective, whereby society distinguishes the categories by which a person's work may be evaluated (Korman & Korman, 1980; Van Maanen & Schein, 1977). The significance of social reference points as a basis for evaluating work experiences is established in the literature (Festinger, 1957; Korman, 1977 Chapters 3,4; ).

Empirical investigations of objective work success operationalize the concept according to its objective indicators, i.e., level of income (Campbell et al., 1976; Jaskolka & Beyer, 1985; Korman et al., 1983; Kotten 1982; Luthans, Rosenkrantz, & Hennessey, 1985) occupation (Sarason, 1977; Trice, 1985 ), hierarchical position (Crites, 1969; Gould & Penley, 1984; Kotter, 1982; Pellegrin & Coates, 1956; Shrivastava, 1978) number of promotions (Luthans, et. al., 1985 ; Rosenbaum 1984), material possessions (Korman et. al.,1983), and reference group perceptions of a person's career path (Kotter, 1982). In this framework, the work successful person is one who has attained one or a combination of the following: personal income, a profession that is categorized as

glamorous or fast track and accrues social esteem, power and various material possessions. As Korman and Korman ( 1980 ) comment, work success often reflects:

The materialistic, status-oriented, power over others...that we have long accepted as defining " I made it ". Occupational sociologists have almost always found that income, and power over others ... tend to be most crucial in the ranking of occupational status in this country ( p.11 ).

Perceptual investigations of work success define the term more subjectively in an attempt to assess the impact of work from a cognitive perspective (Gattiker & Larwood, 1987). In this framework work success is operationalized as an individual's attitude toward work success (Gattiker & Larwood, 1984), or as an occupation that results in career satisfaction for the person (Gattiker, 1985; Gattiker & Larwood, 1987). Work success is also viewed as the fulfillment of work values that define the needs, values and activities of working people (Derr, 1986). Such work values, needs and activities are conceptualized as reflecting a person's " internal career" while objective indicators of work success are thought to reflect a person's " external career" (Derr, 1986, Schein, 1975). The subjectively work successful person is one whose work accrues prestige or the self perception that the person is work successful regardless of what objective indicators would suggest, whose work results in satisfaction, or whose work activities are in concert with the person's values and needs.

In this study, work success is defined objectively and subjectively. Objective work success reflects the rewards that one attains at work, i.e., income level, number of promotions, responsibility changes and job title. Subjective work success is defined as a person's perception that he/she is successful at work. Both of these conceptualizations of work success will be investigated.

## WORK SUCCESS AND WELL-BEING: A REVIEW

Empirical research investigating the impact of work success on well-being has resulted in a small body of literature which demonstrates that the effects are both positive and negative. This discussion will address both of these findings utilizing the success indicators identified above and the behavioral and attitudinal outcomes of achieving work success.

### The Positive Impact of Achieving Work Success on Well-Being.

Income has been explored as an indicator of work success and is conceptualized as influencing well-being through the material satisfactions that it can provide the person and his/her family. Opsahl and Dunnette (1966) suggest that high income has the potential to serve as an "anxiety reducer" and/or as a mechanism for gaining desired outcomes. Yankelovich's (1979) work identified the notion that the material satisfaction one obtains through high levels of income is a value intrinsic to the American ideal of work. These notions were supported in a national survey conducted by Rubenstein (1981) concerning the importance of money in American culture. Among his findings was that almost two thirds of the respondents agreed that " In America, money is how we keep score". Also, respondents who believe in the American Dream (i.e., that talent, education, hard work and frugality "pay off" ), spend more time thinking about money and they believe that income indicates intelligence, mental health, life satisfaction, and life success.

Korman et al. (1983) theorize that our present society may be distinguished as having a "Materialistic Work Ethic". Specifically, the Materialistic Work Ethic represents a social reality and states,

...That a particular career or job is more satisfying and more positive for an individual, the higher its prestige relative to other positions and the more income it provides relative to others. Until recently...the relationship between these factors and job attitudes was in fact easy to document ( Korman, 1977, 1971, p.185-186).

According to the Materialistic Work Ethic, the expected positive outcomes of work success are:

1. Societal approbation for having achieved societal value.
2. Freedom from the drudgery of jobs calling for repetitive routines.
3. Higher income and the resulting ability to purchase an ever-increasing variety of consumer goods.
4. Greater ability to control one's life in both a career and non-career sense.
5. Greater ability to control the task activity of others and to assert power over others in general.
6. A more viable, cohesive family life because of greater income and the presence of a more desirable role model as the successful individual.
7. Relative freedom from the cares and woes of middle and old age (due to greater income..)
8. In addition, the organization has also assumed that the values derived by individuals have generated an increased work commitment and intent (p.188).

Based on these assumptions, the authors suggest that individuals, especially professionals, will highly value income, position, and personal growth as work success indicators.

Thus, professional people who earn high incomes are conceptualized as being more satisfied than their lower income counterparts as their standard of living is higher and their perceptions of themselves as being work successful are greater. In a national survey concerning quality of life, Campbell et al., (1976) discovered that people who are earning incomes in top brackets are more satisfied with their lives than are those who are earning incomes in lower brackets. Brief and Hollenback (1985) discovered that a person's SocioEconomic Status significantly interacted in the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction. For those people in the top third of the SES distribution, job satisfaction correlated .33 with life satisfaction while the correlation for those at the bottom third was .18.

Hierarchical position is another popular indicator of work success (Gould & Penely, 1984; Kotter, 1982). According to the Materialistic Work Ethic, the higher a person's place in an organization's hierarchy: the more autonomy that person will have in decision making, the less routine tasks he/she will perform, the more power the person will have over others, and he/she will achieve higher levels of income. Thus, hierarchical level should have a positive effect on well-being.

In their national survey, Campbell et al., (1976) and Campbell (1980) discovered that respondents at higher supervisory levels are more satisfied than those at lower supervisory levels. They also report that people in higher supervisory levels consider work as a central life domain. Shrivastava's (1978) research also indicates that as one ascends the managerial hierarchy, life satisfaction increases.

Gattiker and Larwood (1987) in their study of successful managers determined that these success criteria (income and hierarchical position) correlated highly with career satisfaction. They interpret their results as supporting the Materialistic Work Ethic and the positive relationship between work success and well-being. While the results of Gattiker and Larwood's study are not conclusive, they parallel the findings of other studies reviewed here which suggest that work success has a positive impact on well-being.

### The Negative Impact of Achieving Work Success on Well-Being

While the achievement of work success implicitly assumes that an increase in well-being will result, a body of literature is evolving which suggests that the achievement of work success can have negative consequences for well-being. Discussion of this phenomenon will begin with a review of the literature that focuses on the negative impact of work success indicators (income and hierarchical level) on well-being. Then, the literature which focuses on the experience of work and its influence on successful people will be presented.

Theorists such as Milner (1968), Slater (1970) and Deci (1975) have suggested that the use and acceptance of income levels in our society as an indicator of work success has the potential to alienate people. They reason that if income is employed as a basis of evaluation for ourselves and others, then people will be so engrossed in making more money that they may invest little energy in other life domains and may thus be preventing themselves from enjoying other aspects of life.

Korman, Wittig-Berman, and Lang (1981) and Korman and Korman (1980) in their investigations of the presence of alienation in work successful professionals suggest that for many managers, the achievement of financial success has not been what they had anticipated. These professionals believed that the attainment of success (high income level) would result in an increase in personal satisfaction. Korman and Korman's (1980) and Evans and Bartolome's (1981) interviews with successful managers revealed that the pursuit of work success resulted in the diversion of energy away from other aspects of life. When success was achieved and an increase in personal satisfaction was not apparent, these professionals reported that they felt alienated. Korman and Korman (1980) posit that a factor in this experience of alienation may be disconfirmed expectations- the beliefs of what success would accrue were not met.

While the Materialistic Work Ethic suggests that the achievement of high income and hierarchical level should have a positive effect on well-being, it also recognizes that these indicators of success may have negative effects on well-being. Korman et al. (1983) suggest that the use of income as an indicator of success and the notion that the consequent increase in materialism will increase life satisfaction may not be a correct assumption. These researchers posit that the pursuit of high income may have negative effects on well-being because it may result in,

1. Lack of interest and focus on other dimensions of life satisfaction.
- 2a. Dissatisfaction with current life and current status/activities (unless the person perceives him/her self as very successful).
- 2b. Unrealistic expectations as to the satisfaction to be attained from career success.
- 3a. Guilt and self anger if one is not satisfied.
- 3b. Alienation (personal and social) due to disconfirmed expectations (p. 186).

Korman, Greenberg, Omran, Mahler, Lavy, and Hartog (1986) in their study of full-time employed MBA students discovered no significant relationships between income level and well-being, which supported the findings of other researchers cited in their study. Campbell et al., (1976) discovered in their national survey that although income levels were higher than ever before, and the nation was experiencing its highest level of historical prosperity, the number of people who were very satisfied with their lives declined. Evans and Bartolome's (1981) study of successful European managers also discovered that financial success did not contribute to well-being and actually detracted from family well-being. Gattiker and Larwood's (1987) research supports this finding as they found that salary level correlated negatively with marital satisfaction for successful managers in California firms.

In a review of the literature addressing the " Career Success/ Personal Failure" syndrome, Korman (1987) concludes that for a number of successful people, financial/organizational success does not enhance well-being. The desire to achieve high levels of income in an effort to demonstrate to one's self and to society that one is successful " tends to make us one-dimensional individuals, alienated from other aspects of human experience and unable to enjoy non-financial based types of life satisfaction" (p.9). Korman posits that this reality elicits an "emotional realization" that the rewards of our "highly materialistic society" are not what was anticipated and results in the feeling of "meaninglessness", which is a primary component of alienation (Seeman 1972).

Hierarchical position has also been conceptualized as influencing well-being. Sarason (1977) and Korman et al., (1983) suggest that the position an employee holds in his/her profession or organization not only indicates his/her degree of achieved success, but

also serves as a source of prestige and power. Managers in general are normally perceived as work successful by society because they represent not only financial and hierarchical success, but they accrue prestige as well (Van Maanen & Schein 1977). The Materialistic Work Ethic indicates that these circumstances should positively influence personal satisfaction.

In a longitudinal study of executives in an American corporation, Howard and Bray (1980) did not find any statistically significant relationships between hierarchical level and life satisfaction. Kavanah and Halpern (1977), in their study of university employees discovered that as one ascends the supervisory hierarchy, job satisfaction and life satisfaction levels decrease. Kipnis's (1976) research concurs with this finding as he found that those people who are in hierarchical positions which accrue power tend to be alienated.

Howard and Bray and Kavanah and Halpern posit that an increase in hierarchical level and the consequent increase in responsibility may require the person to devote more time and energy to work, leaving less time for other life domains. Kipnis suggests that an increase in hierarchical level is usually accompanied by an increase in power. This increase in power may subsequently change the person's relationship with his/her coworkers, resulting in feelings of alienation.

A common finding in current qualitative and empirical research regarding the adverse effect that work success may have on well-being, is that successful managers and executives experience alienation which is directly attributed to their work and organizational experiences. The desire to achieve at work and obtain its rewards may require certain trade-offs. The more time a person spends at work, the less time he/she may have to develop affiliative relationships or to spend time with family. In addition, as a person pursues his/her career related activities, he/she may not pursue other areas of self-development. A person may also discover that in order to achieve at work they have had to

engage in certain behaviors that are different from the behaviors that had been anticipated. Once success has been achieved, he/she may discover various voids in his/her life as a result of these trade-offs.

The beliefs of what work success would accrue may be disconfirmed. With time, the concentration of effort in succeeding at work may result in difficulties with relating to family members and/or in a lack of personal relationships and personal interests. Past work behaviors may have alienated coworkers and elicited the questioning of such behaviors. Evaluation of the costs of the trade-offs that one has made in becoming successful may also result in feelings of meaninglessness. Disconfirmed expectations, the pursuit of achievement above affiliations and self development, and the acting out of work roles that may be contrary to what was anticipated can result in feelings of meaninglessness, normlessness and isolation, all of which are components of alienation. Studies investigating the well-being of professional people appear to suggest that the experiences described above are common.

Maccoby's (1976) groundbreaking study of corporate managers revealed that they experienced "social" alienation- an inability to relate to others, as well as "personal" alienation-a loss of emotional feeling. In a study of thousands of managers Tarnowski (1973) reported that these employees experienced high levels of personal and social alienation and that they specifically identified their career pursuits as a factor. In a psychoanalytical study La Bier (1986) discovered that many work successful people experience an emotional void in their lives and consequently have difficulty with relating to themselves and other people. In a study focusing on four hundred and fifty successful entrepreneurs, Boyd and Gumpert ( 1983) disclosed that these people experience feelings of isolation (a dimension of alienation as identified by Seeman, 1972), and low levels of well-being. Alienation among work successful managers and executives has also been reported by Korman et al., (1986); Lang (1985); Korman et al., (1981); and Korman and Korman, (1980).

This body of literature has also unearthed the presence of an array of emotional and behavioral problems among work successful people in both their work and non-work lives. In a USA Today (1986) survey of of five hundred and fifty-four founders of successful small businesses, respondents reported that: the pressures of running their companies had hurt their relationship with their spouse (36%), their personal relationships were a major stressor (22%), their relationships with their children were tense (15%), and that they had underestimated the burden that their careers and success would have on their family (26%).

Evans and Bartolome (1986, 1981, 1972) interviewed successful European managers and their wives and found that these employees experienced stress, fatigue, marital and familial problems and an overall state of meaninglessness. In a study of work successful people in an array of prestigious occupations and professions (eg. bankers, physicians, judges, athletes, models..), Berglass (1986) discovered a variety of personal and family problems which resulted in life dissatisfaction. La Biers' (1986) clinical research indicated that successful people experienced distress and depression and had difficulty in maintaining meaningful relationships. Derr's (1986) clinical research of hundreds of Navy officers revealed that many of these people experienced depression and anxiety related to their work and that they preferred to change their career plans that would result in less stress and family conflict. Greenhaus, Bedian and Mossholder (1987) determined that a negative spillover relationship between work and non-work life existed for three hundred and thirty six accountants. The presence of conflicting role demands between work and nonwork life for working people has generally been found to detract from reports of well-being (Brief, 1980; Greenhaus et al., 1987; Kopleman et al., 1983; Korman & Korman, 1980).

Popular literature has reported that self-destructive behaviors such as smoking, drug abuse, and eating disorders may be prevalent among successful female executives (Deutsch, 1986). The presence of depression and meaninglessness due to disconfirmed

expectations as to what achieving success would bring was also discovered in a sample of older executives (Goleman, 1986). This finding is further supported by both LaBier's (1986) and Derr's (1986) clinical research.

Research focusing specifically on mid-life work successful people indicated that these employees experienced a composite of personal problems. As early as 1961, Henry reported that highly successful executives at mid-life began to experience distress concerning their careers and questioned the meaning of work achievement, work success and their work and non-work related values. The experience of work and personal frustration throughout one's career among one thousand mid-life professionals was discovered by Schultz (1974). In a longitudinal study of forty work successful men, Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson and McBee (1978) disclosed that these people experienced personal traumas and self-doubt during the mid-life years.

### Summary

The studies discussed in this review have sampled successful people, yet this body of research has not measured objective work success. While conclusions from the literature indicate that well-being is inconsistent for these people, this variability can not specifically identify the attainment of work success as the culprit. Thus it is difficult to discern whether the lack of well-being for many successful people is a result of the attainment of work success or the result of other life circumstances. This study will attempt to discover whether work success specifically influences the perception of well-being for successful working people.

The inconclusive results as to the impact that work success has on well-being may also indicate that a difference between how work success has been accomplished by those who are experiencing high levels of well-being and those who are experiencing low levels of well-being exists. This issue is addressed in the following section.

## CONGRUENCY AS A FACTOR IN WELL-BEING

### The Person-Environment Fit Paradigm and Congruency

Congruency is a condition of the person-environment fit paradigm. The PE fit paradigm is a "method for understanding the process of fit between organization members and their environments" (Caplan, 1987, 249). According to Caplan, organizations desire to select people who will best meet the demands of the job, and prospective employees want to work for organizations that will use their skills and fulfill their needs. Thus, a "match" is sought between: what a person is capable of doing, the type of activities a person prefers to perform, the rewards a person values, and the type of work an organization requires the person to perform and the rewards and work settings that the organization can provide.

Congruency then, is distinguished as "the degree of fit or match between two sets of variables (person and environment) in producing positive and negative outcomes" (Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987: 268). People are posited to respond to different environments in accordance with their perception of fit between themselves and their surroundings (French & Caplan, 1972). Overall, if congruency or fit is achieved, then the person's needs are being fulfilled and he/she is likely to become a productive and loyal organization member. If congruency does not exist, then the person's needs are not being fulfilled and he/she may exit the organization, become less productive, and/or experience dissatisfaction.

Person-environment congruency has generally been operationalized in three ways: vocational-a fit between the individual's personality type or work values and an environment's personality type or work values (eg. Holland 1973; Schein, 1975); avocational-correspondence between a person's personality type or self concept and his/her choice of occupation and avocational activities (eg. Super, 1957); and abilities-the degree of

correspondence between a person's skills and job requirements (eg. Taber, Beehr, & Walsh, 1985).

In this study, congruency is defined as concurrence between a person's ideal work values and the work values attained in the person's work setting. Weinberg and Tittle (1987) studied congruency employing "ideal" and "real" job characteristics and demonstrated that this method for determining congruency has validity.

### CONGRUENCY AND WELL-BEING: A REVIEW

An assumption of congruency is that if peoples, work values are being satisfied by their profession and the organization within which they work, then high job performance and well-being should result. The research question posed earlier inquires what the effect of congruency between personal work values and attained work values will have on well-being. In response to this question, a review of the literature addressing the condition of congruency will be addressed. This discussion should elucidate the paradox presented earlier whereby work successful people were not experiencing high levels of well-being. It will be proposed that a possible explanation for this finding is that although success may be achieved, if it occurs in an incongruent fashion, well-being may be adversely affected.

The attainment of congruency in occupational choice or organizational selection is theorized by various researchers to result in success, satisfaction and advancement . Empirical research pertaining to a variety of occupational groups has demonstrated that congruency between personality, work values and abilities, and work settings and job requirements, results in high performance and low stress (Pervin 1968), high satisfaction (Assouline & Meir, 1988; Mount & Muchinsky, 1978; Tziner 1983 ), and high morale and low work strain (French 1982). Muchinsky and Monahan (1987) report that people who

work in settings that are congruent with their interests experience higher levels of happiness and productivity than do those for whom an incongruency exists.

Kuklin, Oldham, and Hackman (1987) further suggest that people who are capable of performing their work and who are desirous of growth will be satisfied if the work context is congruent with their "motivating potential". These researchers view the goal of work design as specifying the task conditions under which individuals will excel in their work. They specify the need to identify the characteristics of the job holder (skill, knowledge, psychological needs) and characteristics of the work context (motivating potential of the job). They posit that if work is designed with job holder characteristics in mind, and if job holders are well prepared to perform in their work, then the congruency between these two components may foster motivating potential in work and satisfy a person's growth need strength. On the other hand, if people are not capable of performing their work and if the job does not have motivating potential then they may be unable to satisfy their growth need. The role of job design in this case is to train people in order to make them proficient in their work. By creating this congruency (between what the person can do and what the job requires), the motivating potential of the job may increase and jobholders may then have the opportunity to fulfill their growth needs.

Meir and Yaari (1988) discovered that if people experience congruency between their occupational specialty and their work requirements they will experience greater levels of satisfaction than if congruency does not exist. Assouline and Meir (1987) in a meta-analysis of the relationship between congruency and well-being, demonstrated that a positive relationship exists between congruency and well-being. Meir and Melamed (1986) also demonstrated a positive relationship between congruency and well-being and further determined this relationship to be additive, i.e., the more work aspects of person/work that were congruent, the higher the resulting well-being.

Greenhaus, Seidel and Marinis, (1983) in a longitudinal study and laboratory simulation addressing the impact of work expectations, work values and job satisfaction,

discovered that congruency in job values accounted for substantially more of the variance in job satisfaction than did "realistic" job expectations.

While a body of literature addressing the impact of congruency on well-being is still evolving, results from these studies suggest that if work values are satisfied by the work setting, i.e., if congruency exists, then high levels of job satisfaction and well-being will result.

The presence of a 'lack of fit' or incongruency between an employee's skills, interests, values or personality, and an environment's personality, value systems and task or decisionmaking requirements has been determined to result in decreased performance, dissatisfaction and stress (Osipow & Spokane, 1983 and Pervin 1968), and personal dysfunction (Moos, 1987). Bartolome and Evans (1981) discovered that a poor person/environment fit leads to tension and stress which ultimately intrudes upon a manager's family life. Moos (1987) suggests that the presence or absence of congruency will influence work domains as well as having a spillover effect on the non-work domains of a person's life. Moos specifically comments,

...environmental systems tend to maintain or accentuate personal characteristics congruent with their dominant aspects...When environmental demands either exceed individual preferences or tax their capacity to manage them, some personal dysfunction is likely to result (p.239).

The environment that a person works in reflects the work a person performs, the systems within which they carry out their tasks, the behaviors they are expected to display, and the rewards made available to them by their organization. Each of these categories has the potential of becoming a source of value conflict or incongruency. While not much research has been conducted on each of these environmental areas, some research does exist which illustrates the effects of conflicts between personal work values and

organizational work values. This literature will be reviewed after the need for the consideration of a variety of personal and environmental value systems is addressed.

While income has traditionally served as one of the primary values that people attempt to fulfill at work, a body of literature is evolving which suggests that today's worker is interested in other values besides money such as: meaningful work, time for self-development, time for interactions in non-work life, and feelings of integrity resulting from the work a person performs. An understanding of the pluralistic nature of today's worker will assist in our understanding of why intense work value conflicts between what is desired and what is offered may be present among many successful people and how such conflicts impact their well-being.

In addressing the idea that work value conflicts result from the propensity of organizations to structure work tasks and consequent rewards around a single value (money), Derr (1986) comments,

Internal career diversity among employees is not a fad that will quietly disappear. It reflects the greater political, social, educational, and economic pluralism of society at large (p.8).

Derr suggests that the traditional exchange between employees and organizations of money for time is dated. Instead, a new contract will need to appeal to people's expressive needs for "autonomy, creativity, community and entrepreneurship" (p.10). Other researchers and popular authors appear to echo a similar idea. In their examination of work in the twenty-first century, Yankelovich and Immerwahr (1983) posited that the two greatest forces in the future are,

The increase in the amount of control or discretion that jobholders have over their work and the emergence of a new set of work place values which we call the philosophy of expressivism. The task of integrating these two trends will be one of the central tasks of managers and administrators (p.34).

These researchers define expressivism as reflecting workers' internal and personal values of "fulfilling one's potential as an individual" (p.36). They cite the following result from their national survey as evidence of the expressivism value. 50% of the respondents report that their parents primary motivation for working was to "survive" and 5% report that their parents' worked for "self- development". However, 38% of the respondents claim that "survival" is their primary work motivation and 17% report that they work for "self-development" .

The idea that people work for reasons other than to acquire income suggests that organizations will have to restructure their reward and work systems if they are to fulfill the work values of their employees. Gunther & Klaus (1983) report that organizations are beginning to adapt to these new demands as "corporate pyramids" are being replaced by more horizontal structures.

Asimov (1983) suggests that the value change in the future work force will be a result of changing technologies which serve to automate many of the tasks that people now perform manually. This will result in a work force that has to perform less boring jobs and has more time for creative endeavors. He suggests that having time for creative and fulfilling work will be the primary value of future employees. These assumptions are also supported by Naisbitt (1982) in his book "Megatrends". He envisions new technologies changing corporate structure from being vertical to horizontal and decentralized as new technologies provide for easier communication and processing of information. The result of these changes will be that employees will become more "right brain" oriented whereby creative thinking will be desired. Toffler (1981) in his work "The Third Wave" states that the advent of technologies will allow for the customizing of work for diverse lifestyles and preferences rather than standardization.

The work force is becoming more pluralistic and the changing value systems of workers are already apparent. Organizations have been slow in realizing this phenomenon and in adjusting their structures and rewards. One of the results of this lag is a professional

work force that is experiencing an array of value conflicts and thus low levels of well-being. La Bier (1986) in a seven year clinical study of two hundred and thirty professional people elucidates the links between work success and emotional conflicts.

The drive for career success exists alongside a parallel, but often less visible drive for more fulfillment and meaning from work than the latter now provides in most organizations. The tension between these two drives, as they are played out in the arena of large organizations in which most of us work..has unleashed the dark side of successful adaptation..(v).

In their qualitative research, La Bier (1986), Derr (1986), Korman and Korman (1980) and Korman et al., (1980;1981) discovered that many professional people report a vague dissatisfaction with their lives. They express feelings of detachment, that what they do is meaningless, and that they are emotionally numb- despite their work success. The life descriptions of these researchers' subjects have been found in other such studies whereby people report feeling alienated, enraged, and emotionally detached. The cause of these sensations is almost universally attached to some form of value incongruity between the person and his/her work setting. The discussion that follows clarifies what work values are and why an incongruity between a person's ideal work values and the outcomes attained from his/her work can have an adverse effect on well-being.

### The Nature of Work Values

Values are the mechanisms through which people develop selfperceptions, and work becomes an opportunity whereby values are fulfilled and selfconcepts are substantiated (Super, 1957,1973). Nord, Brief, Atieh, and Doherty (1986 ) define work values as "the end states people desire and feel they ought to realize through working" (p.4). Pryor (1979) also views work values as evolving from a person's interaction with

his/her work environment. Nord and his associates suggest that work values have a "causal relationship" with the meanings that people attach to their work.

On the one hand, over time, work values are a consequence of the meanings that individuals collectively attach to their work. On the other hand, at any given point in time, these collective meanings can be viewed as given and hence being a cause of the meanings that individuals attach to a given activity (p.5).

The idea that work values are shared interpretations of what people want suggests that they become an important component of social reality. This social reality in turn influences a variety of work functions such as job design, socialization processes, and the relationship between work and non-work life. Thus, the implementation of work values may have a significant impact on well-being. Nord and his associates provide the following example to illustrate this point; "the easier it is for people to perceive a positive relationship between what they do to earn a living and achieving other valued ends, the better they are apt to feel about the quality of their lives" (p.5).

Derr (1986) supports the notion that work values are an important component of well-being and he actually defines work success in a value orientation, i.e., " ..success is being able to live out the subjective and personal values one really believes in and to make contributions to the world of work" (p.5). This work value-oriented definition of success substantiates the early work of Pellegrin and Coates (1956) who studied executives and supervisors and determined that these groups of people define work success differently as each preferred different values made accessible by an organization. Executives were found to value esteem and personal accomplishments and thus defined success as indicating a high level position in an organization's hierarchy. Supervisors, on the other hand, defined success according to the values of job security and respect.

According to Derr ( 1982, 1986), there are five different work value orientations which can be used in defining peoples' work values. Calling them " career success orientations", Derr suggests that these work value sets may reflect a person's "internal

career"- personal career definitions which reflect values, hopes and plans. They represent the activities a person prefers to engage in, his/her guiding beliefs and philosophies, attitudes and norms, and generally reflect a "person's own subjective idea about work life and his/her role in it" (1986, p.1). The "external career" on the other hand, represents the person's social reality at work, i.e., " the combination of opportunities and constraints existing in a given occupation or organization" (1986, p.23). The potential for value conflict arises when there is an incongruity between a person's internal career (personal work values) and the external career (the rewards provided by an organization).

Derr's conceptualization of the meaning of work values has its roots in Schein's (1975) career anchor concept. An anchor reflects the motivational, attitudinal and value orientations of people formed during their socialization and maturation processes at work and serve as a continuous guide for working behavior. Anchors represent needs, and motives that a person attempts to satisfy through work. " The rewards he seeks thus can be thought of as his job values...These values, in turn, also reflect an underlying pattern of needs that the individual is trying to fulfill" (p.13).

Schein (1975), Driver (1982,1980) and Derr (1986) concur that if people's work values are distinctly different from the rewards, work setting, and decision-making structure of their employing company , then these people will be dissatisfied with their work and organization and may choose to exit the situation or, if they decide to stay, their well-being may be impaired. Derr (1986) discovered that professional people who have attained work success in a way that was incongruent with their value set actually perceived themselves as failures. La Bier (1986) reports that successful executives who have betrayed their work values for those of the organization experience an array of dysfunctional and destructive behaviors such as rage, escapism, depression, and anxiety. Each of these researchers suggests that in order for people to function optimally in an organization, their work values have to be fulfilled, i.e., a person-environment fit or congruity between the person and the organization must exist.

### Summary

While congruency may result from a variety of sources, i.e., personal skills and the skills required in performing organizational work, an individual's personality and an organization's culture, or occupational specialty and job requirements, this research will specifically address congruency resulting from a fit between a person's ideal work values and the work values attained in his/her present work setting. The answer then to the research question concerning how congruency influences well-being suggests that if people are employed in work settings that fulfill values that are congruent with their ideal work values, then their well-being will be enhanced.

### THE WORK SUCCESS, CONGRUENCY INTERACTION AS A FACTOR IN WELL-BEING

Congruency appears to have a positive influence on well-being. However, the influence of work success on well-being is inconclusive. Some studies report that the attainment of work success enhances well-being while others report that it detracts from well-being. Perhaps congruency plays a role in determining whether or not work success will positively influence well-being.

An understanding of the interaction between work success and congruency may provide insight into the inconsistent findings concerning successful people's life satisfaction and happiness. This issue has not been examined conceptually or empirically in the literature. However, findings from clinical research on successful people provide some direction in addressing this research question. A common theme in this small body of work suggests that the discontent experienced by many successful people may be attributed to some form of work value conflict.

In his study of successful naval officers, Derr (1986) discovered that when success was not achieved in a manner consistent with people's work value orientation, they perceived themselves as failures. For instance, some officers valued exciting and

innovative work , yet they found themselves succeeding in administrative or managerial positions. While their co-workers and families perceived them as successful, they did, not as they had been unable to engage and achieve in the kind of work they valued. They received numerous promotions, salary increases and accrued power. However these rewards were meaningless because they valued innovation and challenge. As they became more deeply immersed in the hierarchical structure, they experienced depression and apathy. Many of these people reported feeling alienated and dissatisfied with life.

La Bier's (1986) work with successful executives identifies another form of value conflict that Derr also discovered. Many executives reported dissatisfaction with life because they had invested too much time in work achievement while neglecting the development of themselves and non-work relationships. Once success was attained, the lack of intimacy created a void in their lives which they attempted to fill with material possessions. When materialism did not alleviate their loneliness and sense of emptiness they became enraged. Their inability to develop meaningful relationships resulted in feelings of emptiness and inadequacy. Over time, this trade-off between achievement and affiliative values instilled in them feelings of isolation and meaningless.

LaBier also discovered value conflict among these executives which evolved from their ethics. In the pursuit of success they found themselves compromising their values in displays of behaviors that were not indicative of their norms. While such activities assisted in their ability to get ahead, they resulted in feelings of betrayal, anger and self-abasement.

Korman and Korman (1980) and Evans and Bartolome (1981) interviewed scores of managers and also discovered that many of them felt alienated from themselves and the world around them. In concurrence with Derr's and LaBier's findings, many of these managers had sacrificed affiliation for achievement and found the financial rewards of success to be less than what was anticipated.

These studies suggest that if work success is attained in a manner that is not congruent with work values, then well-being is not enhanced. The attainment of financial rewards and hierarchical prominence detracted from well-being when innovative and invigorating work was valued. When the desire to balance time among work, family and self-development was not compatible with organizational structure, alienation and loneliness resulted. When hierarchical mobility and organizational power were attained at the expense of desired work values and personal ethics, self-abasement and detachment were evident. These findings suggest that if an incongruency exists between a person's work values and the values that a work environment is capable of fulfilling, then the attainment of work success will not enhance well-being.

One explanation for discrepancies in the work success well-being literature may be that the role of work value congruency has not been taken into account. This research will commence the investigation of the work success/congruency interaction and its influence on well-being. Specifically, this study posits that when congruency is high, work success will demonstrate a stronger, positive relationship with well-being than when congruency is low.

## THE INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES THAT MODERATE THE RELATIONSHIPS OF WORK SUCCESS AND CONGRUENCY WITH WELL-BEING

The need to consider whether there are individual differences that may moderate the work success and well-being relationship and the congruency and well-being relationship is suggested in the literature. In a review of the "Career Success/Person Failure" literature, Korman (1987) concludes that there does not appear to be a direct relationship between career success and personal well-being. However, when various perceptual variables are taken into account, relationships may appear.

In their study addressing "Work and the Quality of Life", Brief and Hollenbeck (1985) suggest that relationships between job and life satisfaction differ when moderated by respondent's perception of the importance of the work domain in life. When the "importance of work" was high, job satisfaction correlated with life satisfaction. When the "importance of work" was low, job satisfaction did not correlate with life satisfaction. Greenhaus and his associates (1987) discovered no significant relationship between work success and quality of life until moderator variables-"contradictory life demands", gender, and "time devoted to work" were taken into account. Gattiker and Larwood (1987) also discovered no significant relationship between work success and satisfaction until moderator variables were included in their analyses. Korman et al., (1986) found that gender had some moderating effects in the relationship between income, disconfirmed expectations, a sense of powerlessness, loss of affiliative satisfactions and alienation.

This investigation will consider the impact of three individual difference variables- gender, negative affectivity and work role salience- on the work success, congruency and well-being relationships. The discussion which follows will review each of these concepts by citing the literature which appears to support the theoretical inclusion of these variables in this study.

## Gender

While a current practice in research is to search for gender differences in results, few studies offer theoretical reasons as to why such distinctions should be made. While this study is also interested in gender differences, the inclusion of this individual difference variable in the research model to be presented in the next chapter is based on a theoretical framework of how men and women may differ with regard to the research questions posed previously. This discussion will review both theoretical and empirical literature which elucidate the differences between these two groups and provide the basis upon which gender hypotheses are later developed.

Gilligan (1982) has proposed that men and women undergo different maturation processes that influence differences in the values, beliefs and behaviors of men and women. She posits that a man's maturation process encompasses the development of independence, logical thinking and avoidance of relationships. Men are socialized to value assertiveness, achievement and power which result in their competitive behaviors. The indicators of successful male development in the work arena is then evidenced by hierarchical position and income level.

Women's maturation processes on the other hand encompass the development of interrelationships and the need for intimacy. They are socialized to value relationships and nurturing behaviors result. They are taught to be more passive than competitive and thus experience achievement vicariously (Lipman, Blume & Leavitt, 1976; Stein & Bailey, 1973). These values are evident in the work arena as women attribute higher value to social skills (Centers & Bugental, 1966), rather than to high levels of income and the material possessions that accrue (Korman, et.al., 1986). Where high levels of work-generated income may provide men with the sense of power and status, for women, the income that accrues from being successful at work may provide women with a sense of

independence and competence (Nieva & Gutek, 1981). Research has indicated that men and women differ in their "cognitive schema" regarding work success (Moss & Frieze, 1987).

These developmental and value differences are apparent in how men and women evaluate their work settings. While men appear to place an emphasis on positional authority (the opportunity to exercise leadership, make decisions, and get ahead) when evaluating their work circumstance, women tend to evaluate their work setting in regard to its social climate (Miller, 1980). Crosby (1980) in a study of "Relative Deprivation and Working Women" found that women place a lower value on "pay" and a higher value on a "sense of accomplishment" when determining their contentment with work than do their male counterparts. Women also place a higher emphasis on the job values of resource adequacy and convenience than do their male counterparts (Walker, Tausky, & Oliver, 1982).

In a study investigating the values of male and female entrepreneurs, Cromie (1987) found that while both men and women select proprietorship because they value autonomy, and achievement and desire job satisfaction, he also discovered gender differences. In selecting entrepreneurship as a career move, women place a lower value on money than do their male counterparts, and a higher value on fulfilling their work values and family needs. Loden (1986) suggests that a female's leadership style differs from a male's in that men prefer competition and rationality and promote short run gains while women prefer cooperation, intuition, and long-term organizational vitality. Men appear to value concentrated power in a hierarchical system while women value a "team" approach. Instead of changing their value system and leadership style, women may eventually opt to leave the organization. In general, men place a higher value on extrinsic work rewards (income and position), while women place a higher value on intrinsic work rewards (occupational self-directedness), interesting work and substantive complexity (Walker et al., 1982; Miller, 1980).

Evans and Bartolome, (1981) discovered that financially successful male executives are dissatisfied with their loss of affiliations due to work. However there is little research evidence to suggest that women experience the same dissatisfaction. Favor (1982), found that for middle age women with families who have high career values, satisfaction was positively and significantly related to paid employment. While work appears to intrude strongly on affiliations in non-work life for men resulting in low levels of well-being, for women this intrusion does not have a similar negative result: "...for women the family role is allowed to intrude into the work role and for men, the work role is allowed to intrude into the family role " (Nieva & Gutek, 1981, p. 47). Crosby (1982) reports that working women experience less resentment toward the family role than do housewives. Korman, et al., (1986) suggests that "women might utilize various compensatory mechanisms to experience lower levels of a loss of affiliation from their careers all along than men, thus making "income-alienation ....less important for women than for men " (p.17,18). Women have also been found to become less committed to their organizations and less job involved than are men (Tinsley & Faunced, 1980), lending support to the notion that women may be more capable of separating work from non-work life. Successful women may not experience the same incongruity between achievement and affiliation as do successful men because they are able to keep these two domains; work and non-work life separate and thus may not sacrifice one for the needs of the other.

Zytowski (1969) differentiates the woman as developing the dual roles of homemaker and worker because she can bear children. Females then, may have had to make career choices that are influenced by the parental role. While working mothers experience higher levels of role conflict (Tinsley & Faunced, 1980), there is little evidence to suggest that their well-being is adversely affected. Crosby (1982) reports that working women in prestigious jobs report similar high levels of life satisfaction and job satisfaction as do working men. She suggests that the presences of multiple roles may insulate working women against discontent with any one role. Research has determined that for

married female accountants, high job performance has a negative impact on marital adjustment and quality of life perceptions (Greenhaus, et al., 1987). However, this result was not tied to role conflict and may instead reflect a problem in a spouse's acceptance of a high job-performing wife.

Women are also just beginning to experience parity with men in the job market and some feel that they are not treated well in their work setting (Tinsley & Faunched, 1980). In her research, Crosby (1982) discovered that working women are aware of the discriminatory differential between their salaries and those of working men, yet this reality had an insignificant effect on their evaluations of work satisfaction, and their perceptions of "felt" deprivation. While working women as a group perceive that they are not treated equitably, this group perception did not affect an individual's reported satisfactions. Employing an assumption of Deprivation Theory that "feelings of grievance depend on cognitive and environmental factors and not simply on objective factors" (p.151), Crosby reasons that women who perceive an unjust work situation may employ a variety of cognitive schema that prevent them from experiencing such discrimination on a functional level. Therefore, although women may experience incongruencies that are attributable to their dual role, lack of opportunities, and discrimination their socialization appears to have prepared them for dealing with conflicting values better than men.

Traditionally, as men mature, they learn that their role is that of income provider. Research has demonstrated that successful men who perceive themselves as "provider" experience higher levels of satisfaction in a traditional family structure, and lower levels of satisfaction in a dual career or non-traditional family structure (Osherson & Dill, 1983). The presence of a non-traditional family structure may create an incongruency for men with regards to their "provider" value. As they usually do not develop the dual role of child rearer and worker, and as they have had many professional opportunities open to them, they may not become as accustomed to these incongruencies as females may. Men may find themselves in work settings that are not congruent with their value set yet they may be

unable to change their work situation because of family responsibilities or other personal reasons. Thus, men may be less tolerant of incongruency overall than their female counterparts.

### Summary

Because of their developmental and socialization experiences, women may be better able to adjust to incongruent work settings. Congruency, then, may not be as important a factor in women's well-being as it may be for men. Thus, this research proposes that the presence of work value congruency will have a more significant effect on well-being for men than it will for women.

There is a dearth of literature addressing the differential impact of work success on well-being for men and women. In general, men place a higher value on extrinsic rewards while women place a higher value on intrinsic rewards. The attainment of objective work success for male well-being appears important, while the influence of work success on women's well-being is unclear. This research proposes that objective work success will have a more significant impact on well-being for men than for women.

### Negative Affectivity

Negative Affectivity (NA) is a mood dispositional dimension (Tellegen, 1982; Watson & Clark, 1984) that has received considerable empirical and conceptual attention in the applied psychological literature. NA reflects individual differences in "negative emotionality and self concept: High-NA individuals tend to be distressed and upset, and have a negative view of self, whereas those low on the dimension are relatively content and secure and satisfied with themselves" (Watson & Clark, 1984 p.465). High NA people are usually introspective, have low self-esteem and dwell on the negative aspects of their lives such as their mistakes, frustrations and disappointments. Furthermore, NA manifests

itself in the absence of overt stress, and generally reflects a negative view of the world, others and self. Watson and Clark suggest that NA is a subjective experience and not dependent on objective conditions: "it emphasizes how people feel about themselves and their world rather than how effectively they may actually handle themselves in the world" (p. 466).

The idea that a negative dispositional trait exists evolved from the work of Zevon & Tellegen (1982) in their investigation of a "consensual structure of mood". They discovered that mood can be characterized as reflecting two independent states-Positive Affect and Negative Affect. These dimensions were identified by factor-analyzing adjective check lists. Those adjectives that reflected enthusiasm, excitement and inspiration clustered together and were named Positive Affect, while those which reflected distress, nervousness, and fear clustered and were named Negative Affect. They determined that the factor score distributions for the two dimensions were quite different. Positive Affect scores were normally distributed and were spread across a broad range of moderate values. Negative Affect scores tended to remain at a fairly low level. Such results were replicated by Watson, et al., (1984) in Japan. Watson & Tellegen (1985) reanalyzed a variety of studies of self-rated mood and demonstrated that Positive and Negative Affect consistently emerged as the first two rotated dimensions in orthogonal factor analyses, or as the second-order factors derived from oblique solutions. These authors conclude that Positive Affect and Negative Affect, "represent the major dimensions of emotional experience" (p.234). The identification of Negative Affect as a dimension of mood led to the development of the Negative Affectivity construct.

The NA construct reflects a general negative condition and incorporates diverse personality traits such as: trait anxiety, neuroticism, ego strength, general maladjustment, repression-sensitization and social desirability (Watson & Clark, 1984). The NA construct was established empirically by correlating research results from numerous tests that were developed to measure the personality traits mentioned above. The intercorrelations among

these test dimensions were very high (Watson & Clark, 1984) suggesting that a unitary dimension was being tapped. Validity and reliability studies further supported the notion that a common trait-NA, reflects an individual's tendency toward a negative disposition.

Further confirmation of the existence of stable (negative) dispositions was offered by Staw, Bell & Clausen (1986) in their longitudinal investigation of job attitudes. Staw and his associates discovered that personal dispositions from early adolescence can predict job attitudes later in life, i.e., that affective disposition was a significant predictor of job and career satisfaction. An implication of these findings is that peoples' perception of their satisfactions may reflect their dispositional character instead of their objective situation. In a review of the literature concerned with the conceptualization of the job stress well-being relationship, Brief and Atieh (1986) consider the role that NA may play. They comment,

...if an individual reports the existence of unfavorable job conditions and also that he or she is distressed, it is possible that both of these responses may be indicative of this underlying personality disposition, negative affectivity. Thus, it may not be the job conditions per se that are producing the distress but rather a stable personality trait is influencing both self reports of job conditions and distress (p.16,17).

Recent empirical studies have begun to investigate the role that NA may play in people's perceptions of their work environments such as self-report indicators of stress, strain, distress and health complaints. Brief, Burke, Atieh, Robinson, and Webster (1988) discovered that when managers were asked to report on the presence of stress and strain at work and their job and life satisfaction, NA inflated the negative relationships between these variables. The authors assert that : " ...NA should not remain an unmeasured variable in the study of job stress " (p.18). Watson and Pennebaker (1987) in their investigation of health complaints, stress, and distress found that the self-report health measures reflected, in part, the NA trait. While NA was also discovered to correlate with

subjective indicators of distress and stress, it was independent of objective health indicators.

### Summary

The inclusion of the personality construct NA in this investigation of the impact of work success and congruency on well-being is to control for those individuals who have an inherently negative disposition, regardless of situation (i.e., work success or work value congruency), and thus have the potential to decrease any positive relationships between work success and well-being, and congruency and well-being.

### Work Role Saliency

The pursuit of a work career engages substantial time and energy on the part of the individual if success is to be achieved. Engagement in work and the desire to be successful at it requires personal commitment and has the potential of becoming an integral part of a person's life. The Work Role Saliency concept reflects these assumptions.

Work Role Saliency is defined by Greenhaus (1970) as the importance of work in one's total life. WRS is high when a person commits time and energy in planning, developing and succeeding in a career. It is apparent in a person's general work attitude and preference to prioritize work activities over non-work activities. Thus, the work a person does plays an integral part in a person's life and in how the person views him/herself. WRS is a commitment concept that "attempts to capture the notion of devotion to a craft, occupation, or profession apart from any specific work environment, over an extended period of time" (Morrow, 1983 p.490).

There has been some research which suggests that work as a central life interest influences the career behaviors of professional people and their perceptions of congruency. Greenhaus and Simon (1976) determined that people with high WRS tend to search for

satisfying work. Greenhaus, (1974) and Greenhaus and Honma, (1978) discovered that high WRS individuals seek out work that will satisfy their work values. In an investigation of bank managers, Greenhaus, Springob, and Souerwine (1984) found that the occupational interests of high self-esteem and high WRS people were more congruent with their chosen career than for low self-esteem, low WRS people.

Sugalski and Greenhaus (1986) determined that for managers in a communications company, high time devoted to work was related to a person's perceived mobility opportunities and that these two factors correlated with a managers selection of clear career goals. In a study investigating managerial mobility goals and work as a central life interest, Goldman (1973) found that when work is a central life interest the desire for mobility is high, and when work is not a central life interest the desire for mobility is low.

Greenhaus et al., (1987) revealed that for accountants who were high in WRS, work success was associated with marital problems and low quality of life when little time was devoted to work roles. Quality of life was high and marital problems were scarce when commitment to work and time invested in work was high. These results suggest that WRS can have a significant impact on well-being. Rice, Near, and Hunt (1980) propose that the importance of work in a person's life actually moderates the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction. Steiner and Truxillo's (1987) empirical investigation of this hypothesis was supportive. Brief et al, (1981) also discovered that the importance of the work domain in life moderated the job/life satisfaction relationship.

Thus, if WRS is high, then whether a person is successful and working in a congruent environment should have a greater impact on well-being than if WRS is low. If work is a central life concern and influences the way in which a person views him/herself, and if personal time and energy are devoted to achieving at work, then the manner in which success is achieved should have an impact on well-being. Champoux (1978) concludes from his research on work as a central life interest and self concept: "...possibly one of the

important components of .. work as a central life interest is the degree of fit between an individual's self-concept and the characteristics of the work setting" (p.216-217).

### Summary

This study proposes that if work plays an important role in a person's self-concept and assessment of his/her life, then the achievement of work success should have a greater positive impact on well-being when WRS is high than when WRS is low. Similarly, high WRS infers that a person has invested a lot of time and energy planning for a work career and trying to achieve in his/her career, well-being may be adversely affected if the person is working in a setting that is incongruent with his/her work values.

This chapter has presented the literature addressing this study's research questions. The chapter which follows will integrate this literature into a research model and outline hypotheses designed to assess the impact of work success, congruency, and individual differences on well-being.

## **CHAPTER TWO: THE RESEARCH MODEL; CONSTRUCTS, RELATIONSHIPS AND HYPOTHESES**

This chapter will present the groundwork for this study's investigative framework. The concepts that were reviewed in the previous chapter will be presented in a brief overview of their relationships so that hypotheses can be generated. This discussion will conclude with a schematic representation of the research model.

### **WELL-BEING**

Well-being reflects an individual's subjective quality of life, i. e., the psychological state of a person in relation to oneself and the world around him/her (Campbell, et.al., 1976; Campbell, 1980). It has two identifiable components: an affective component and a cognitive component, each of which represents different dimensions of psychological functioning.

Cognition reflects the process whereby relativism enters into judgments of satisfaction. Satisfactions derive from aspirations and standards of comparison, such that level of satisfaction requires evaluation by the individual of perceived discrepancies between aspirations and achievements (Campbell, 1980; Campbell, et al. 1976; McKennell & Andrews, 1983 ). Affect, on the other hand, refers to the individual's emotional state that is not tied to a cognitive frame of reference (Andrews, 1978; McKennell & Andrews, 1983 ). Satisfaction then infers evaluation and judgment where affect infers emotional reactions. Empirical research has demonstrated these two concepts- satisfaction and affect- to be different (Diener & Emmons, 1985; Diener, 1984; McKennell, 1978; Michalos, 1980; Zajonc, 1980 ). Both components will be employed in evaluating well-being.

## WORK SUCCESS

Work success has been conceptualized in the literature according to objective and perceptual frameworks. Objective work success reflects the rewards that one attains at work, i.e., income level, number of promotions, responsibility changes and job title. Subjective work success is defined as a person's perception that he/she is successful at work. This study incorporates both of these perspectives.

Objective conceptualizations of work success measure the phenomenon in accordance with an external perspective, whereby society distinguishes the categories by which a person's work may be evaluated (Korman & Korman, 1980; Van Maanen & Schein, 1977). Empirical investigations of this conceptualization of work success operationalize the concept according to objective indicators. The work success indicators to be used in this research are: job title, the number of vertical and lateral promotions, and income level.

Perceptual investigations of work success define the term more subjectively in an attempt to assess the impact of work from a cognitive perspective (Gattiker & Larwood, 1987). This conceptualization of work success is operationalized in this research as the respondents' perception of their success at work.

## WORK SUCCESS AND WELL-BEING

Empirical research concerning the impact of work success on well-being demonstrates that attaining work success may enhance a person's well-being. National survey research suggests that people who: earn high incomes, are classified as having high socioeconomic status, work in white collar occupations and hold prominent positions in an organization's hierarchy report high levels of well-being. On the other hand, people who: earn low incomes, are classified as having low socioeconomic status, work in blue collar occupations and do not hold prominent positions in an organization's hierarchy report

moderate and low levels of well-being (Andrews & Withey, 1974; Campbell, et al., 1976 ).

**Hypothesis 1: There will be a positive relationship between Work Success and Well-Being.**

A growing body of empirical and clinical research demonstrates that in many cases, work success is accompanied by a variety of personal and social problems and a decline in life satisfaction (Derr, 1986; Evans and Bartolome 1972, 1981, 1986 ; Henry, 1961; Korman et al., 1986, Korman et al.,1981; Korman and Korman, 1980; La Bier, 1986; Kavanah & Halpern 1977; Lang, 1985; Steiner, 1972 ; Tarnowski, 1973 ). The question which evolves from these results is why do some work-successful people report high levels of well-being while others do not? The answer may reside in determining whether there is a difference between how work success has been attained by those who report high levels of well-being and those who do not.

**CONGRUENCY AND WELL-BEING:  
THE PERSON-ENVIRONMENT FIT PARADIGM**

Congruency is a condition of the person-environment fit paradigm. The PE fit paradigm is a "method for understanding the process of fit between organization members and their environments" (Caplan, 1988 p.249). Congruence is distinguished as " the degree of fit or match between two sets of variables (person and environment) in producing positive and negative outcomes" (Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987 p. 268). People are posited to respond to different environments in accordance with their perception of fit between themselves and their surroundings (French & Caplan, 1972).

Empirical research has demonstrated that congruency results in high performance, high levels of satisfaction , happiness and well-being, low levels of stress and strain, and high morale (Assouline & Meir, 1987; Assouline & Meir, 1988; French 1982; Kuklin, Oldham, & Hackman,1987; Meir & Melamed, 1986; Meir and Yaari,1988 ; Mount & Muchinsky, 1978; Muchinsky & Monahan,1987; Tziner 1983; Pervin, 1968). The

presence of a "lack of fit " or incongruency is posited to result in decreased performance, dissatisfaction, personal dysfunction and stress (Moos, 1987; Osipow & Spokane, 1983; Pervin, 1968).

In this study, congruency is defined as concurrence between a person's ideal work values and the work values that are obtained in a person's work setting. It is posited that if a person is successful in a work setting that allows for the fulfillment of his/her ideal work values, then congruency will exist and thus work success should have a positive impact on well-being. If, on the other hand, a person is successful in a work setting that does not fulfill his/her ideal work values, but instead provides for a different set of work values, then work success should not have a positive impact on well-being. Therefore, the presence of congruency should positively correlate with well-being.

**Hypothesis 2: There will be a positive relationship between Congruency and Well-Being.**

#### THE WORK SUCCESS, CONGRUENCY INTERACTION AS A FACTOR IN WELL-BEING

It was reported earlier that congruency appears to have a positive impact on well-being. Work success has demonstrated inconsistent relationships with well-being. Some studies indicate that the attainment of objective work success enhances well-being while others claim that it detracts from well-being. Evidence from a small body of clinical research on successful people and well-being suggests that many of these individuals experience dissatisfaction and unhappiness with their lives. A common theme in these studies identifies some form of value incongruency as the potential culprit.

Many successful professional people report that they have had to: concentrate on achievement at the expense of affiliation, behave in ways that contradict their ethics and have attained success in a manner that was different from what they desired. The outcomes of these value conflicts have been identified as alienation, an inability to develop personal

relationships, emptiness, anger and depression. While these people have attained work success, the costs have been significant.

At present, the interaction between work success and congruency and its impact on well-being has not been investigated conceptually and empirically. It may be that some of the inconsistencies in the work success, well-being literature reflect the need to consider the role that congruency may play in this relationship. Perhaps if people attain success in a manner that is congruent with their work values then their well-being benefits. On the other hand, if people attain work success in a manner that is inconsistent with their work values then their well-being may be hampered.

**Hypothesis 3: The positive relationship between Work Success and Well-Being will be stronger when Congruency is high than when Congruency is low.**

#### THE INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES VARIABLES AND THEIR MODERATING EFFECTS ON WORK SUCCESS, CONGRUENCY AND WELL-BEING

The necessity for exploration into the effects of moderator variables on the work success well-being relationship is evidenced by Greenhaus et. al., (1987) and Gattiker and Larwood (1987) who discovered that the relationship between work success, satisfaction and quality of life could only be demonstrated and explained when an array of moderator variables was taken into account. This study proposes that gender, work role salience, and negative affectivity are individual difference variables that can influence the work success, congruency, well-being relationship.

#### Gender

Men and women are conceptualized as experiencing different maturation and socialization processes (Gilligan, 1982). In general, men are taught to be independent and competitive and women are taught to be intimate and to value relationships. Women are

also conceptualized as developing dual roles, i.e., homemaker and worker, while men are conceptualized as developing the role of provider (Zytowski, 1969).

An outcome of these differences in development is evidenced in empirical research which demonstrates that men and women have different prominent work values (Centers & Bugental, 1966; Cromie, 1988; Miller, 1980; Walker, Tausky & Oliver, 1982), have different work experiences (Loden, 1986) and different cognitive schema regarding work success (Moss & Frieze, 1987). As a result of their developmental processes and consequent values, and their experiences with work and dual roles, for women, the relationship between work success and well-being may not be as significantly affected by congruency as it may be for men.

**Hypothesis 4: The interaction between Work Success and Congruency will be have a greater influence on Well-Being for Males than for Females.**

The Effect of Work Value Groups on Hypotheses 1, 2, 3, and 4.

The relationships proposed in Hypotheses 1,2,3 and 4 should not be work value set specific. It is the conditions of work success and congruency that are conceptualized as affecting well-being. If a person is work successful and if congruency exists, then a positive relationship with well-being should be evident regardless of the work value set that categorizes the person. The moderating effect of gender should also be unencumbered by the work value set.

**Hypothesis 5: The relationships proposed in Hypotheses 1,2, 3 and 4 will not differ across different work-value groups.**

Negative Affectivity

Negative Affectivity (NA) is a mood dispositional dimension (Watson & Clark, 1984) that has been receiving considerable empirical and conceptual attention in the applied psychological literature. NA reflects individual differences in " negative emotionality and self concept: High-NA individuals tend to be distressed and upset and have a negative view

of self, while those low on the dimension are relatively content and secure and satisfied with themselves" (Watson & Clark, 1984 p.465). Furthermore, NA manifests itself in the absence of overt stress, and reflects a negative view of the world, others and self.

Recent empirical studies have demonstrated that people who are high in NA report that they experience stress, strain, distress, dissatisfaction with life and work and complain about their health regardless of their objective circumstance (Brief, Burke, Atieh, Robinson, & Webster, 1988; Watson & Pennebaker, 1987). It is posited in this study that the presence of high NA will adversely influence well-being, regardless of whether a person experiences work success or congruency.

**Hypothesis 6a: The positive relationship between Work Success and Well-Being will be greater for people who are low in Negative Affectivity than for those for whom Negative Affectivity is high.**

**Hypothesis 6b: The positive relationship between Congruency and Well-Being will be greater for people who are low in Negative Affectivity than for those for whom Negative Affectivity is high.**

**Hypothesis 6c: The relationship between Well-Being and the Work Success, Congruency interaction will be greater for people who are low in Negative Affectivity than for those for whom Negative Affectivity is high.**

**Hypothesis 6d: The relationships proposed in Hypotheses 6a, 6b, and 6c will not differ across different sets of work values.**

### Work Role Salience

Work Role Salience is defined by Greenhaus (1970) as the importance of work in one's total life. WRS is high when a person commits time and energy in planning, developing and succeeding in a career. The work a person does becomes integral in how the person views him/herself.

Greenhaus, et al., (1987) discovered that for accountants who were high in time devoted to work (a dimension of WRS), work success was associated with marital problems and low quality of life when little time was devoted to work roles. Quality of life was high and marital problems were scarce when commitment to work and time invested in work was high. These results suggest that WRS can have a significant impact on well-being. Rice, Near, and Hunt (1980) propose that the importance of work in a person's life actually moderates the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction. Steiner and Truxillo's (1987) empirical investigation of this hypothesis was supportive.

This study posits that if WRS is high, i.e., if work is important in a person's life, then whether a person is successful and working in a congruent environment should have a greater impact on well-being than if WRS is low.

**Hypothesis 7a: The positive relationship between Work Success and Well-Being will be greater for people who are high in Work Role Salience than for those for whom Work Role Salience is low.**

**Hypothesis 7b: The positive relationship between Congruency and Well-Being will be greater for people who are high in Work Role Salience than for those for whom Work Role Salience is low.**

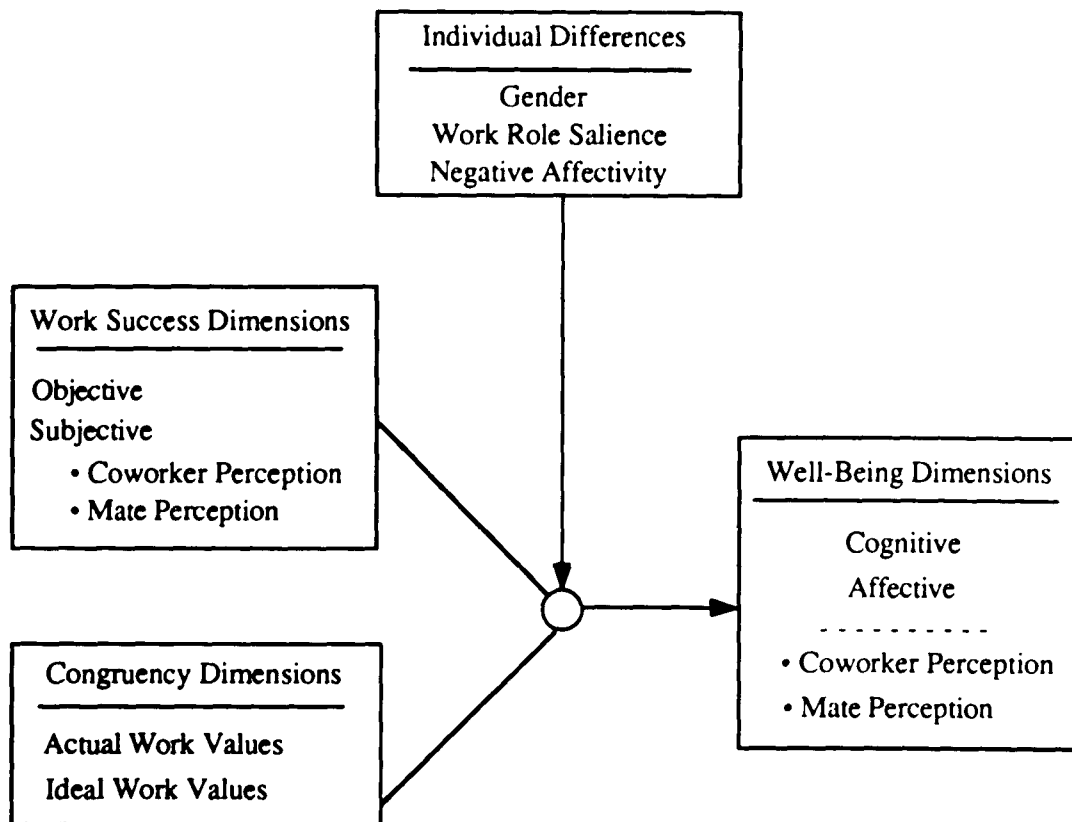
**Hypothesis 7c: The relationship between Well-Being and the Work Success, Congruency interaction will be greater for people who are high in Work Role Salience than for those for whom Work Role Salience is low.**

**Hypothesis 7d: The relationship proposed in Hypotheses 7a, 7b, and 7c will not differ across different sets of work values.**

## THE RESEARCH MODEL

Figure 1. represents the research model employed in this study to test the hypotheses identified in this chapter. In addressing the research questions proposed earlier, the model posits that work success and congruency will influence well-being and that this relationship will be moderated by individual difference factors.

**Figure1. A Model of the Impact of Work Success, Congruency and Individual Difference Dimensions on Well-Being**



○ Implies a complex interaction

## CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents the research methodology employed in this study. Discussion will begin with the identification of the research design and a description of the sample and sampling procedures. Then, measurement of the research variables and the rationale for including specific scales in the questionnaire will be presented. This chapter will conclude with the data analysis techniques to be used in hypothesis testing.

### RESEARCH DESIGN

This study employed a cross sectional survey design. Appendix A (p.226-242) is the research questionnaire that was administered .

Prior to data collection the questionnaire was pre-tested. As this research needs to include individuals with a varying degree of work success, certain parameters were set for the sample. Middle level department managers, supervisors and directors, executives, professionals, entrepreneurs, and people who own their own businesses were deemed eligible for participation in the pilot study. These people are in positions where a range of success can be achieved and identified in accordance with the research purposes.

Sixty surveys and a question sheet concerning the questionnaires' content and purpose were distributed to people who fit these parameters. Thirty questionnaires were returned, of which twenty-nine were used in data analysis. One survey was disqualified as there were many items on more than half of the scales that were not answered. Data analysis consisted of frequency distributions and Pearson correlations. Fifteen of the respondents were later interviewed in an effort to get their reactions to the research material i.e., the wording of items, content and research purpose. These analyses were used to modify the questionnaire. Results of this pilot study can be found in Appendix B (p. 243-277).

## SAMPLE DESCRIPTION

### Power Analysis

The survey respondents include working men and women, ages 25-65 years old, from the New York tri-state business community. The sample parameters were the same as those set for the pilot study. In order to determine the number of cases needed to achieve a power of at least .80 in this research, i.e., to reject the null hypothesis that the population  $r$  equals zero, a Power Analysis for  $R^2$  (Cohen & Cohen, 1975) was conducted. As this analysis had more than one variable that can account for the variance in the dependent variable, a multivariate formula was selected. To determine the sample  $N$  for the  $F$  test of significance of  $R^2$  the following procedure (Cohen & Cohen, 1975 p. 117-118) was used:

- The significance criteria was designated at .05
- The desired power for the  $F$  test was set at .80
- $k$ , representing the number of  $df$  associated with the source of  $Y$  i.e., the number of independent variables, was set at 6.
- The  $L$  value at .05 was found in Table E.2, for .80 = 13.62
- The population effect size;  $ES = f^2$  was determined with the following formula:  $f^2 = R^2 / 1 - R^2$ ,  $f = .0526$
- The sample  $n$ ;  $n^*$ , was then determined with the following formula:  
 $n^* = L/f + k + 1$ . Although .80 is the desired power,  $n^*$  was calculated for other values as well. The following are the  $n^*$  for the following powers:  
 .95 = 403.58; .90 = 338.18; .85 = 297.1; .80 = 265.93.

1000 questionnaires were distributed and 331 were returned, resulting in a response rate of 33.1%, approaching a power of .90.

### Sampling Procedures

The sample was obtained through a variety of methods. Questionnaires were distributed to: organizations in the New York tri-state area and to professors in a New Jersey college, an entrepreneurial association in New Jersey, a venture capital group in New York and small business associations in New York and New Jersey. Questionnaires were mailed to part-time professional M.B.A. students enrolled in a New Jersey university, and to potential respondents identified by consultants. Respondents were also solicited by the researcher on suburban railroads during rush hour that departed from affluent suburbs and were destined for a major business district. Each set of questionnaires was coded in order to identify the source of the sample, response rates, and to be able to pair the responses of significant others with their respondent. The ability to identify sample sources will allow for analysis to determine whether the sampling method had an effect on the research results. Sampling procedures for each method will be described herein.

Access to organizations was achieved either through personal contacts in various organizations and industries, or through 'cold' calling. The personal contacts introduced the researcher to the vice presidents and/ or managing directors of departments. The department heads were presented with a brief proposal that outlined the purpose of the research and its potential organizational applications, and a questionnaire packet. The proposal appears in Appendix C. After a two week review period the department head was contacted at which time questions and concerns regarding the questionnaire were addressed. Once access was granted, the designated number of questionnaires was delivered to the department head. They were instructed to distribute questionnaires to those employees who fit the sample parameters, i.e., respondents were employed in middle managerial positions and above. When questionnaires were distributed respondents were assured of their confidentiality, and were strongly urged to complete the questionnaire by their superior.

The organization contact method of distribution was utilized because: The recommendation for survey participation by an industry peer functioned to alleviate the department head's concern about the personal nature of the questionnaire, department heads are able to identify and distribute questionnaires to those employees who fit the sample parameters, and with the department head's survey endorsement employees may be more willing to participate.

Some of the organization contacts recommended department heads in other organizations that they believed would be willing to participate in the study. These people were contacted and provided with research proposals and questionnaires. When access was achieved, questionnaire distribution followed the same process as described above. One organization in this group declined access as they had recently undergone a merger and the vice president of personnel felt that this type of research would be inappropriate at this time.

In an effort to achieve representativeness in the "Getting Ahead" work value category, three major banking institutions were contacted. After developing telephone contact with the vice president of human resources at one of these banks, a proposal was sent along with a letter that guaranteed the institution's confidentiality. After further contact with the vice president of human resources, access was granted. The other two banks demonstrated no interest in participating in the research at this time.

Access to the educational institutions and to a group of M.B.A. students was achieved by obtaining permission of the dean of the business faculty to distribute questionnaires. The questionnaire packets were mailed to the students with a special cover letter which requested their participation in the study, and were distributed to the faculty members in person by the researcher. Many faculty members for whom English is a second language declined participation.

Access to the north-eastern business associations was provided at their bi-annual functions. The researcher discussed the study with the group, answered questions, and

then personally distributed questionnaire packets. Access to the north-eastern entrepreneurial association was gained on two consecutive bi-weekly meetings. The president of the association discussed the research purpose with the group and strongly urged its participation.

Access to the venture capital group was achieved at their monthly meeting. The researcher was granted thirty seconds to "pitch" the survey to relevant respondents. The researcher also answered additional questions regarding the survey's purposes and then distributed surveys to respondents. A record was kept concerning the number of questionnaires that were actually distributed and the number of candidates who refused participation.

Other respondents were solicited by the researcher during the morning and evening rush hour on suburban railroads destined for a major business district. The researcher spoke to people, asked them if they were middle managers, executives or professionals, then proceeded to distribute the questionnaire to the appropriate people. Those eligible respondents who declined participation were noted in order to achieve an accurate response rate from this group.

The solicitation distribution category includes those questionnaires which were distributed on commuter railroads and those mailed to MBA students and college professors. The company category includes questionnaires which were distributed in corporations where access was gained through contacts or cold calling. The business association group represents those questionnaires that were distributed at monthly meetings.

Table 1 represents the response rates for each of the sample distribution methods.

Table 1. Survey Distribution Methods

<u>Distribution Method</u>	<u>Response Rate</u>	<u>% Sample</u>
Solicitation	54.9%	40.8%
Companies (9)	36.1%	42.1%
<u>Business Associations</u>	<u>23.5%</u>	<u>17.1%</u>

Overall, the solicitation method of questionnaire distribution had the highest response rate and the business association method had the lowest response rate. While the researcher personally distributed questionnaires to both groups, person to person contact was greater in the solicitation method. The researcher's close contact with solicited respondents may have increased these peoples' commitment to complete the questionnaire.

#### Sample Demographics

A variety of demographic characteristics were obtained and are reported herein. The respondents were composed of 128 females and 197 males, representing 38.8% and 59.7% of the sample respectively. Five respondents did not report their gender, representing the remaining 1.5% of the sample. 16.4% were single, 7.0% were cohabitating, 67.9% were married, 6.4% were divorced, 0.9% were widowed, and 1.5% did not respond to this item. 31.8% of respondents were between the ages of 25-34, 38.2% of respondents were between the ages of 35-44, 18.8% were between the ages of 45-54, 9.1% were between the ages of 55-64, 1.5% were 65+, and 0.6% did not respond to this question. 46.4% of the respondents have no children, 11.2% have one child, 26.1% have two children, 10.3% have three children, 3.9% have four children, 1.2% have five children, and 0.9% did not respond to this question.

High School was the highest level of education for 7.9% of respondents. 10.9% respond that they have had "Some College", 6.7% have an Associates Degree, and 32.1% have a College Degree. 29.1% have gotten a Masters Degree, and 13.3% have achieved a

Ph.D. or equivalent degree. The majority of respondents (61.5%) live in a suburban area, 28.8% live in an urban area, 7.9% live in a rural area, and 1.8% did not respond to this question.

The sample's occupational composite and response rates are depicted in Table 2. Sample categories were designed to reflect Derr's (1986, 1987) theory of career development. His theory is anchored in the assumption that there are five different "career success orientations" that represent the different work-values which people use in assessing whether they are successful at work. These career success orientations were operationalized in this study to represent different work-value sets. These sets describe a person's "ideal" or personal work values and "present" work-values i.e., those that are attained in their employing organization or work setting. The sample categories in this research were derived from a variety of occupations and industries in an attempt to reflect the categories in Derr's theory. While certain occupations may not solely reflect a specific work-value set, most of them do require the presence of specific work-values that are reflective of the work-value sets.

Table 2. Sample Occupation Composite\*

D.O.T.	Occupation	# Respondents	% of Total Sample
01	Architect/Engineer	8	2.4%
07	Medicine/Health	17	4.8%
09	Education	36	10.9%
11	Attorney	18	5.5%
15	Advertising/P.R.	9	2.7%
16	Administration Specialist	60	18.2%
18	Manager/Official	46	13.9%
19	Misc. Professional	58	17.6%
20	Administrative Support	9	2.7%
26	Salesperson	41	12.4%
31	Food Service	3	.9%
34	Video Producer	4	1.2%
35	Consultant	12	3.6%
86	Construction	2	.6%
99	Missing Data	6	2.6%

\* Occupational Titles were adopted from The Dictionary of Occupational Titles, 1977, 4th Edition

A variety of occupational categories were surveyed to ensure that differences in work values would be represented. In the " Getting Ahead " set, where power, money, status, and upward mobility are salient work values, lawyers, para-legals, stockbrokers and bankers were surveyed. For the " Getting Secure " value set, where job security and clearly demarcated status systems are the primary work values, educators and public servants were surveyed. Reflecting the " Getting Free " set, where autonomy is the primary work value, small business owners and entrepreneurs were surveyed. For the " Getting High " set, where creativity and excitement are the relevant work values, advertising and public relations people, analysts, consultants, entrepreneurs, and engineers were surveyed. On the other hand, since the " Getting Balanced " set, where value reflected the person's ability to spend equal time among work, family and self-development, does not necessarily exist in a specific value-set but may occur in any set, no specific occupational categories were delineated. In addition, health professionals were also surveyed and are not tied to a specific work-value set as these people may subscribe to any of the work-value categories.

Table 3 represents the industry composite surveyed in this study. The industries surveyed were: Legal, health care, advertising and public relations, education, retail, construction, and financial and communication services. A large survey scope was employed in order to achieve not only variety in occupations, but of industries as well in an attempt to further achieve representativeness of the work-value sets. For instance, a " Getting High " work value set is one where creativity and excitement are valued by the person. In order to survey people for whom this work value set is germane, distribution in the advertising industry was sought, as this field of work requires creativity and project flexibility for success to be achieved. A " Getting Free " work-value set is one where autonomy is the primary value, and so small business associations were sought as its members own their businesses and may thus value autonomy. A " Getting Secure " work-value set is one where job security and knowledge regarding promotional policy are

prevalent, thus the public service and education industries were utilized as these industries have clear security and status practices.

Table 3. Sample Industry Composite\*

S.I.C. Code	Industry	% of Sample
171	Construction	1.8%
372	Transportation	.3%
481	Telecommunications	2.1%
490	Utility	.6%
504	Retail	11.2%
580	Food	2.1%
598	Fuel Dealer	5.5%
602	Commercial Bank	21.2%
628	Allied Financial Services	3.9%
630	Insurance	5.4%
651	Real Estate	.9%
731	Advertising	7.3%
736	Personnel Supply	1.2%
737	Computer Programming	1.8%
739	Management Consulting	1.8%
801	Health	5.1%
811	Legal Services	5.2%
821	Secondary Education	5.8%
822	Higher Education	5.5%
871	Architecture/Engineering	.6%
872	Accounting	1.2%
874	Public Relations	2.7%
910	Government	4.8%
999	Missing Data	2.0%

\* Industry codes were adopted from the Standard Industry Classification Manual, 1980.

One of the assumptions underlying the research hypotheses is that work-value sets in and of themselves should not significantly influence well-being unless an incongruency exists between the person's ideal work-value set and the person's work-value set that is attained in their present work environment. Each set is composed of different work values which are reflective of activities that a person is required to perform in their occupations and professions in a variety of industries. Therefore, an effort was made to survey people not only from many different occupations but from many different industries as well.

Other empirical studies that investigate person-environment fit and congruency have used sampling approaches that attempt to create samples that are representative of the person and/or environmental categories that are reflective of the study's theoretical underpinnings. Holland (1985) created measures in his research that reflected his vocational choice theory and employed samples that were characteristic of his research categories. Meir and Yaari (1988), in their study of " The Relationship between Congruent Specialty Choice within Occupations and Satisfaction " sampled eight occupational fields that were reflective of Holland's (1973,1985 ) and Roe's (1957) theoretical occupational categories. Sampling was conducted in this fashion here as one of the purposes of this research was determine congruency between work value sets that are derived from Derr's (1986, 1987) theory of career development. This study's intention is also to test the relationships among the research variables and not to draw inferences about a specific population. This sampling approach is also designed then to answer the criticism raised by Smart, Elton and McLaughlin (1986) concerning the basing of evidence " on studies of single occupational groups " (p.217).

A similar sampling procedure had also been used by Singh (1986) in an investigation concerning organizational decisionmaking. This research employed a nonrandom sample of industries to achieve representativeness of a variety of organizational decisionmaking styles. While Singh recognized that this type of sample could potentially limit the generalizability of the findings, an exploratory data analysis indicated that as a group they provided the variation necessary to appropriately test the research model. In this study, a MANOVA will be conducted to test for the potential effects of the sampling procedure. The sample will be grouped according to sampling method, and analyses will be conducted to determine if the sampling method had a confounding effect on the findings.

## MEASURES

This section will present the instruments that were employed in measuring the research variables. Each instrument will be discussed according to the following criteria:

- Variable definition and function in the research model.
- Justification for instrument selection, i.e., concept operationalization, reliability and validity estimates, and previous research use.
- Scaling and scoring techniques. A variety of scales were used, i.e., forced choice, adjective check lists, semantic differential and Likert scales, in order to control for possible respondent response sets.

Discussion will begin with the dependent variable and then the independent variables, and will conclude with the moderator variables. Table 4 provides a summary of the study's significant dimensions and their supporting literature. Table 5a. reports descriptive statistics and Cronbach alpha reliability scores for the questionnaire scales. Table 5b. reports descriptive statistics for the single item questions that were employed in measuring the study's significant dimensions. Table 5c. reports the frequency distributions for the single item questions.

Table 4. A Summary of the Proposed Model's Significant Dimensions.

Construct	Dimensions	Description	Literature
Well-Being	(Self Report) Cognitive	The level of satisfaction with life in general and with life domains. A person evaluates the perceived discrepancies between aspirations and achievements.	McKennell & Andrews, 1983; Campbell, 1980; Campbell, Converse & Rogers, 1976.
	Affect	Affect refers to a person's emotional state; feelings of happiness with life in general.	McKennell & Andrews, 1983 Andrews, 1980.
	(Significant Other ) Coworker	Coworker perception about the respondent's satisfaction and enjoyment with life in general and satisfaction with life domains.	-
	Mate	A person in the respondent's private life perception about the respondent's satisfaction and enjoyment with life in general and satisfaction with life domains.	-
Work Success	(Self Report) Objective	The goal directed exertion of physical and mental energy whereby a desired purpose is achieved i. e., income level, hierarchical position, # of promotions, material possessions and occupation.	Jaskola, et. al, 1985; Luthans et. al., 1985; Korman et al., 1983; Gould & Penely, 1984; Rosenbaum, 1984; Kotter 1982.
	Subjective	The perception that the person is work successful regardless of objective success indicators.	Gattiker & Larwood, 1987, 1985, 1984.
	(Significant Other ) Coworker	A coworker's perception of the respondent's work success.	-
	Mate	A person in the respondent's private life perception of the respondent's work success.	-

Construct	Dimension	Description	Literature
Congruency	Work Values		
	Actual	The respondent's perception of the work value set that is apparent in his/her present work environment.	Weinberg & Tittle, 1987; Derr, 1986; LaBier, 1986; Korman & Korman, 1980.
	Ideal	The respondent's perception of an ideal work value set.	Ibid.
Individual Differences	Gender	The respondent's physiological sex.	Moss & Frieze, 1987; Korman et al., 1986; Gilligan, 1982; Nieva & Gutck, 1981.
	Negative Affectivity	The tendency to display negative emotionality regardless of objective circumstance.	Brief, et al., 1988; Watson & Pennebaker, 1988; Watson & Clark 1984.
	Work Role Salience	The importance of work in a person's life.	Greenhaus et al., 1988; Steiner & Truxillo, 1987; Champoux, 1978.

Table 5a. Descriptive Statistics and Reliability for Multi-Item Questionnaire Scales

Scale	Mean	S.D.	Response Range	Reliability Alpha
Well-Being/Affective	53.455	8.742	19.00-70.00	.8962
Well-Being/Cognitive	21.024	3.833	10.00-30.00	.7149
Well-Being/Coworker*	14.003	2.755	7.00-20.00	.8058
Well-Being/Mate*	13.730	2.789	7.00-20.00	.7831
Congruency*	9.313	4.365	0.00-22.00	.6913
Getting Ahead	8.565	3.637	0.00-12.00	.6532
Getting Balanced	62.149	17.687	0.00-12.00	.7801
Getting Free	36.455	10.847	0.00-12.00	.6335
Getting High	64.404	18.987	0.00-12.00	.6487
Getting Secure	20.635	7.406	0.00-12.00	.6478
Negative Affectivity	17.829	5.619	10.00-39.00	.8517
Work Role Salience	58.796	9.875	19.00-85.00	.8276
WRS/Importance	33.381	5.643	16.00-53.00	.7349
WRS/Attitude	21.711	4.722	13.00-35.00	.6660

\* Scale created for this study.

Table 5b. Descriptive Statistics for Single Item Variable Questions

Construct/Item	Mean	S.D.	Response Range
<b>Work Success*:</b>			
#Promotions/10yr.	2.260	1.203	1.00-5.00
<b>#Responsibility</b>			
Change/10yr.	2.036	1.283	1.00-5.00
Income Level	3.355	1.774	1.00-6.00
<b>Perceived Success</b>			
Self	3.690	.797	1.00-5.00
Coworker	4.613	1.696	1.00-5.00
Mate	4.825	1.850	1.00-5.00
<b>Well-Being/General</b>			
Affective			1.00-5.00
Cognitive			1.00-5.00

\*The results for the Job Title item are reported in Table 7, as there were a variety of titles reported for this open-ended question. Response codes were specifically developed for this item. Table 7 reports the frequency of response for each code; however, means and S.D.s were not computed.

Table 5c. Frequency Distribution and Scale Description of Single Item Measures.

Item/Scale Response	Scale Description	Frequency%
<b>#Promotions/10yr.</b>		
1	0	21.5%
2	1-3	46.1%
3	4-6	26.4%
4	7-9	3.3%
5	10+	1.2%
9*		1.5%
<b>#Responsibility Change</b>		
1	0	33.0%
2	1-3	48.2%
3	4-6	12.1%
4	7-9	2.7%
5	10+	2.1%
9		1.8%
<b>Income Level/thousands</b>		
1	\$25-35	18.5%
2	\$36-45	22.4%
3	\$46-55	13.3%
4	\$56-75	15.2%
5	\$76-99	12.1%
6	\$ 100+	18.5%

<u>Item/Scale Response</u>	<u>Scale Description</u>	<u>Frequency%</u>
<b>Perceived Success/"Successful"</b>		
<b>Self</b>		
1	"not at all"	0.9%
2	"not very"	3.9%
3	"somewhat"	34.5%
4	"successful"	46.1%
5	"extremely"	14.2%
9		0.4%
<b>Coworker</b>		
1	"not at all"	0.0%
2	"not very"	1.5%
3	"somewhat"	16.4%
4	"successful"	44.5%
5	"extremely"	25.5%
9		12.1%
<b>Mate</b>		
1	"not at all"	0.3%
2	"not very"	2.4%
3	"somewhat"	12.4%
4	"successful"	39.7%
5	"extremely"	29.7%
9		15.5%
<b>General Well-Being</b>		
<b>Cognitive/"Satisfying"</b>		
1	"not at all"	2.1%
2	"a little"	10.6%
3	"somewhat"	46.8%
4	"very"	34.0%
5	"extremely"	6.5%
9		0.0%
<b>Affective/"Satisfied"</b>		
1	"not at all"	1.8%
2	"a little"	6.7%
3	"somewhat"	44.5%
4	"very"	38.2%
5	"extremely"	8.8%

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\* 9 was used to code for a missing response

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## MEASUREMENT PROCEDURE

### Well-Being

Well-being reflected an individual's subjective quality of life, i.e., the psychological state of a person in relation to oneself and the world around him/her (Campbell, et.al.,1976; Campbell, 1981). Well-Being is conceptualized as having two dimensions; an affective dimension which reflected emotionality and happiness, and a cognitive dimension which reflected satisfaction. In a review article of experimental research designed to ascertain whether there is a difference between " feeling and thinking," Zajonc (1980) concludes: " Affective reactions to a stimulus may be acquired by virtue of experience with that stimulus and need not be accompanied by....an elementary cognitive process" ( p.163 ). The measurement of Well-Being in this study incorporated scales that reflect both of these dimensions.

### Affective Dimension

Affect refers to an individual's immediate feeling state (McKennell & Andrews, 1983), that is dependent on " day to day experiences rather than an enduring personality trait " (Bradburn, 1969 p.5), and is more responsive to concerns in the person's immediate life space than with events in a broader arena (McKennell, 1978).

Affect is generally operationalized as happiness, and specifically by the components of positive and negative affect (Bradburn, 1969; Diener et al., 1985; Diener & Emmons, 1984; Headly et al., 1984; Tellegen and Clark, 1986; Tellegen, 1982; Warr et al., 1984; Watson & Tellegen, 1983; Zevon & Tellegen, 1982). Positive affect represents a feeling state composed of excitement, interest, and elation. This state is reflective of the degree to which an individual is involved in the environment around him/her, has an active interest in the world, belongs to organizations, has friends and is sociable. Conversely, negative affect represents a feeling state which includes worry, unhappiness, and

loneliness. This state is reflected in feelings of alienation, interpersonal tensions, anxiety, and maladjustment to life domains.

The affective dimension of Well-Being was measured with the affective component of Quinn's (1974) "Quality of Life Scale". This component had both general and multi-item scales of well-being. These scales were used by Quinn (1974) and Quinn and Staines (1977) in "The Quality of Employment Surveys" conducted by the Survey Research Center at the University of Michigan from 1969-1970, 1972-1973, and 1977. In addition, scores of researchers have used these scales successfully in a variety of research.

The multi-item scale was derived on the basis of factor analysis. Internal consistency for the 1977 sample (N=1515) was  $\alpha=0.84$ . This scale consisted of ten pairs of adjectives with a seven point scale between each pair. Subjects were asked to circle the number that describes how they see their life. The low end of the adjective pair reflected negative affect and the high end reflected positive affect. Scoring range was from 10-70. The single item scale had a reliability of  $\alpha=0.83$  and asks respondents: "Taking all things together, how would you say things are these days?" This measure was also used in this investigation. Subjects were asked to respond using a five point Likert scale as Atkins (1982) had determined that single item scales concerning well-being perform well when presented in this way.

Campbell, et al., (1976) also employed both of these methods in their determination of the affective dimension in quality of life assessment. They determined that the ten adjective pairs had a common variance of 29% with the global happiness measure, resulting in a multiple correlation of .54. They also created an "Index of Affect" from the scale items and determined the reliability to be 0.89 (Cronbach alpha), while the stability coefficient was 0.43 (after eight months). Concurrent validity, computed by correlating similar items from the Index of Affect with the Index of Domain Satisfaction, was determined to be .94.

The multi-item affective scale appeared in this study on a separate page in the questionnaire, and appears on page 237 in Appendix A. The single item affective question appeared at the conclusion of the life satisfaction domain instrument and appears on page 236 in Appendix A.

### Cognitive Dimension

The cognitive dimension in well-being assessment engages a person's judgments concerning his/her life circumstance and is operationalized as satisfaction. Determination of life satisfaction requires a person to evaluate the gap between his/her aspirations and achievements ( McKennell & Andrews, 1982; Michalos, 1980 ). The perceived discrepancy between aspirations and achievements elicits a judgment against some frame of reference which has as its outcome perceptions of satisfaction or dissatisfaction. This cognitive experience is the basis upon which researchers have developed measures of life satisfaction (Andrews & Withey, 1976; Campbell et al.,1976; Near et al.,1983).

Life satisfaction is viewed as a function of actual life conditions across a wide variety of life domains (Near et al., 1983). Determination of life satisfaction employed both a single item scale as well as a multi-item scale, which assessed satisfaction with specific life domains. Deiner (1984), echoing the opinion of many quality of life researchers, implies that good quality of life assessment requires the employment of both types of scales.

The life satisfaction domains that were investigated in this study are: family life, marriage, friendships, health, leisure time, and work. Respondents were asked how satisfied they are with these aspects of their life. Campbell et al., (1976) employed as many as 17 items in their domain satisfaction scale which accounted for 54% of the explained variance in life satisfaction. Six of these items were selected as they explain nearly 60% of this variance. These six domains were also rated as being important in

determining life satisfaction by Campbell's respondents. Table 6a. presents the stability coefficients, the perceived importance of domains, and regression coefficients for these items as reported by Campbell, et al., (1976). Importance was determined on a scale of 1-5, where 1="extremely important" and 5= "not at all important."

Table 6a. Average Importance Ratings of Domains and Regression Coefficients for Predicting Life Satisfaction from Each Domain Score, and Domain Stability Coefficients (Campbell, et al., 1976).

Domain	Mean Importance Rating	Regression Coefficient: Domain to Life Satisfaction	Stability Coefficients (eight months)
Health	1.37	.219	.668
Marriage	1.44	.364	.526
Family Life	1.46	.408	.473
Friendships	2.08	.256	.423
Job	2.19	.274	.587
Non-Work Activities	2.79	.213	.463

These six domains have also been investigated by other researchers. Their results, along with those of Campbell and his associates (1976) substantiate the inclusion of these domains in this investigation. Table 6b represents these findings.

Table 6b. A Summary of Research Conducted to Determine the Impact of Life Domains on Life Satisfaction Assessment.

Domain	% Variance in Life Satisfaction Explained by Domain	Research Source
Family Life	28%	Campbell et al., 1976.
	48%	Pryor & Reeves, 1982
	33%	Shrivastava, 1978
Marriage	45%	Pryor & Reeves, 1982
	12%	Vredenburg & Sheridan, 1979
	12%	Campbell et al., 1976
Non-Work Activities (Leisure Time)	14%	Londen et al., 1977.
	29%	Campbell, et al., 1976.
Work	18%	Campbell, et al., 1976.
	50%	Vredenburg & Sheridan, 1979.
	51%	Shrivastava, 1978.
Health	18%	Campbell, et al., 1976.
Friends	16%	Campbell, et al., 1976

These domains were combined by Campbell and his associates to create an "Index of Domain Satisfaction." The items were found to account for 33% of the variance in the global measure of life satisfaction. While the stability correlation coefficient for overall life satisfaction was 0.43, the stability correlation coefficient for the Index of Domain Satisfaction was 0.75. The alpha correlation for this scale was 0.89. These researchers also intercorrelated both of the indexes that they created (Index of Affect, Index of Satisfaction) and determined that their intercorrelation was 0.53, thus substantiating the assumption of other researchers that while the dimensions of satisfaction and happiness are related, they do tap different components of well-being.

In this study, subjects were asked six questions, one for each life domain. Response format was a five point Likert scale with a range of response from 1-not at all satisfied, to 5-extremely satisfied. Two of the domain items were rephrased in order to avoid missing data. The family life item became non-work life, and the marriage item became intimate relationships<sup>1</sup>. Subjects were also asked to respond to a global satisfaction item that asked: "Taking all things into account, how satisfied are you with your life"? The response format was a five point Likert scale ranging from 1-not at all satisfied, to 5-extremely satisfied. These measures appear on page 236 in Appendix A.

Well-Being was also determined using significant others' evaluations of the respondent's well-being in an effort to avoid method bias. A scale consisting of four questions concerning the respondent's well-being was developed. Two of the items included in this scale are analogous to the non/work life and work life items in the domain satisfaction scale. The other two items are the same as the general well-being questions that respondents were asked, i.e., "overall life satisfaction" and "happiness with life these days." These scales appear on pages 241 and 242 in Appendix A.

The respondent was asked to give this scale to a co-worker and to the respondent's mate or friend. The mate was defined as a person from the respondent's nonwork-life who could answer the questions easily. Both of these significant others were asked to participate because the respondents may behave differently at work than they do in their private lives, depending upon how their work actually affects them (La Beir, 1986). Thus both of these people were asked to participate in an effort to accurately identify respondent well-being independent of his/her self-perception.

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<sup>1</sup> During the interview phase of the questionnaire's pilot study, it was discovered that the single people did not respond to the family life and marriage items. However, when the items were phrased as non-work life and intimate relationships, these people responded. The married people interpreted the new items in a similar manner as the original items, thus these two items were changed in the research questionnaire.

### Work Success

Work success is defined by the outcomes one attains from work. Objective work success is determined by a person's performance on standard indicators such as income and number of promotions, (eg. Jaskolka, Beyer, & Trice, 1985; Luthans, Rosenkrantz, & Hennessey, 1985), and job title (eg. Crites, 1969; Luthans, et al., 1985). Subjective work success is determined by a person's self-perception that he/she is work successful and/or career satisfied (Derr, 1986; Gattiker & Larwood, 1987, 1985). In this study, both of these dimensions were measured in determining a person's work success.

### Objective Measurement of Work Success

Objective work success was measured with items that are included in the demographic section of the questionnaire and appear on page 228 in Appendix A. Respondents were asked to report their level of income by circling one of six income categories: \$ 25-35, \$36-45, \$46-55, \$56-75, \$76-99, \$100+ (in thousands). Sample parameters were set a priori at \$25,000-\$35,000 because this is the lowest income category of most managerial positions<sup>2</sup>.

Two items asked respondents about their (hierarchical) mobility. Respondents were asked to report the number of promotions they have had in the past ten years, as well as the number of responsibility changes in the same time period. Responsibility changes were asked for as some organizations reward people with new positions that do not necessarily result in movement up an organization's structure, but instead result in new tasks and responsibilities such as heading a new department or project development. This

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<sup>2</sup> This income range was determined by interviewing department heads of large and small companies concerning the minimum salary range for middle level managers.

item also allows for the determination of whether people with different work value orientations receive organizational rewards in a horizontal fashion. For instance, a getting high person values exciting, creative and cutting edge work and may prefer to receive promotions laterally instead of vertically which normally would result in a more administrative position. Respondents were also asked about their mobility between organizations. There is some research evidence which suggests that organization mobility is an indicator of success for people who are interested in "getting ahead." These people are likely to change their place of work if they perceive that their opportunity for promotions had peaked in their current work place (Luthans et al., 1988). These items were going to be controlled for people who own their own businesses as promotions and mobility are a moot point for them. However 17 respondents were identified as business owners, thus they were not segmented from the sample for analysis.

Another indicator of objective success is a person's job title. Respondents were asked to report their current job title in an open-ended fashion. This method was selected because different organizations, depending on their size and orientation may have different systems for creating hierarchy. Codes were developed to reflect the different job titles that were reported and appear in Table 7. This item allows for differential analysis according to position in an organization's structure and thus serves to delineate those people who are closer to the top and those people who are closer to the middle. This coding system also allows for the identification of those people who work in special functions that are not hierarchically relevant such as consultants and specialists; to identify those who are self-employed for separate analysis if necessary; and to control for people who do not fit the sample parameters such as the job title of "clerk or typist."

Table 7. Coding Scheme for Respondent's Reported "Job Title".

Job Title	Designated Code	% Sample
C.E.O./ President	01	4.5%
Vice President	02	16.4%
Assistant to the President	03	3.3%
Manager	04	20.5%
Director/Department Head/ Administrator	05	7.3%
Administrative Assistant/ Assistant Manager	06	7.3%
Owner/Entrepreneur	07	9.4%
Third Level in a Three Tier System eg. Full Professor, Principal, Law Firm Partner	08	3.3%
Second Level in a Three Tier System eg. Associate Lawyer or Professor	09	4.8%
First Level in a Three Tier System eg. Assistant Professor, Staff Lawyer	10	2.4%
Teacher, College Lecturer Guidance Counsler	11	5.8%
Account Executive	12	0.9%
Salesperson	13	0.9%
Consultant	14	1.2%
Analyst	15	3.3%
Technologist	16	1.2%
Technical Specialist eg. Field Service, Programmer	17	3.3%
Contractor	18	0.3%
Health Professional	19	0.9%
Clerk/Secretary*	20	1.2%
Supervisor**	21	0.6%
Missing Data		1.2%

\* These respondents were excluded from the sample for analytical purposes as they did not fulfill sample parameters.

\*\* If a respondent listed their job title as "Supervisor", and if they did not report a managerial salary i. e., less than \$40,000., then they were coded 21. If a respondent listed their job title as "Supervisor", but their reported salary was managerial level i.e., \$40,000, then they were coded 04-"manager".

These items are separate indicators of work success that do not correlate with each other. Thus, they are treated independently in hypothesis testing.

### Subjective Measurement of Work Success

Subjective work success was determined by a one item measure and appears on page 236 in Appendix A. Respondents were asked: "How work successful do you consider yourself to be at work"? Response format was a five point Likert scale ranging from 1-"not at all successful", to 5-"extremely successful". The question followed the satisfaction scale on the same page of the questionnaire. This item was included to determine whether there is a difference between respondents' objective indicators of work success, and their perception as to whether they are successful, and to establish whether either of these indicators of work success affect well-being differently.

The respondent's significant others were also asked to answer a question regarding the respondent's work success: "Do you think that your coworker is successful at work?", or "Do you think that your mate is successful at work"? Response format was the same as that indicated above. The purpose of having significant others answer this question is to avoid method bias and determine whether other people who know the respondent have a similar perception regarding his/her work success.

## Congruency

### Determination of the Fit Between "Ideal" Work Values and "Attained" Work Values

Congruency is a condition of the person-environment fit paradigm, and represents a match between the individual and his/her environment. Determination of congruency in this study employed work values as the fit mechanism. If the respondent's "ideal" work values matched his/her "present work values", i.e., those which the respondent fulfills in his/her organization or work setting, then congruency was posited to exist. Two parallel scales were created by adopting Derr's (1986) "Career Success Map." This scale had thirty items with two forced choice options. Respondents were asked to choose one alternative and to not leave any items blank. These scales appear on pages 229-234 in Appendix A.

For both scales, five different work value sets were represented. The item alternatives were coded with one of five letters; V, W, X, Y, Z, reflecting a different work value set: V-Getting Ahead, W-Getting Secure, X-Getting Free, Y-Getting Balanced, Z-Getting High. Respondents were instructed to circle the letter that represented their selection. For data analysis purposes, these letters were coded numerically during data entry. The number assigned to each letter does not reflect value differences, but instead functions to rename the value set in order to be able to handle the data statistically. The numeric codes for the work value sets is as follows: V=1, W=2, X=3, Y=4, Z=5.

Before this scale was adopted for this investigation, a validation study was conducted. Fifteen experts were given an instruction sheet which explained the five work value sets and identified them with the letters discussed above. A brief discussion followed whereby the experts were asked to discuss the elements of each work value category to ensure that they had a good understanding of these sets. Once their understanding was clear, they were given a copy of the scale that Derr had created with the letter code for each item alternative left out. The experts were then asked to code each alternative with the letters provided. Upon completion of this task, the alternatives for each item were

evaluated by adding those coded correctly and incorrectly for each alternative. If an item alternative received 13 out of 15 correct codes it was left unchanged. For those items where this agreement did not occur, an analysis was conducted to determine if the alternative was thought to reflect a single value set, or if the alternative was coded to reflect many different value sets. These items were then discussed with the experts to ascertain the reasons why they were coded incorrectly. After this discussion, the items were re-worded to better reflect the intended work value set.

The new scale was then coded by ten different experts according to the same procedure used with the first group of experts. The overall agreement among these experts was almost 99%. One alternative was still coded as reflecting two different value sets. After a discussion as to why the experts coded this alternative incorrectly, it was re-worded again. The scale was not re-tested because there was only one item alternative which was difficult to code, agreement did reach 99%, and the re-wording of this single alternative met with the approval of the ten experts.

Two parallel scales were created. On one scale, respondents were asked to select those items that reflect their ideal work values. The other scale asked respondents to select those items that reflected the work values in their present work setting. The wording of the item alternatives were slightly adjusted to reflect these different orientations. Thus two work value scales were presented to each respondent; one which reflected a person's perceived ideal work values and another which reflected a person's perception as to the work values which can be attained in his/her current work setting. The difference between these two perceptions will indicate the degree of congruency for each respondent. The appropriateness of conceptualizing the congruency relationship in this fashion will be presented here as the use of the difference score technique establishes certain measurement requirements.

This study will employ difference scoring to determine levels of congruence. In general, a difference score subtracts a measure of the environment from a

measure of the person, or vice versa. This method has been the major approach in the literature in determining fit in the person-environment fit paradigm ( Rice, McFarlin, Hunt & Near, 1985; French, Caplan & Van Harrison, 1982; Moos, 1974; Stern, 1970; Pervin, 1968). One criterion for difference scoring is that the measures of the person and environmental components be commensurate. The assumptions for commensurate measurement are as follows:

- Commensurate concepts describe person characteristics and environmental properties that belong to parallel conceptual domains and are logically related to and interdependent on one another.
- Commensurate units are those for which intervals of the measurement continuum for the person characteristics are more or less equal to the measurement intervals of the environmental properties (Rounds et al., 1987: 300).

Clearly, the creation of parallel forms of work value perceptions fulfills the measurement requirements outlined above.

#### Calculating Congruency

For each item of each scale for each case, there are only two scores to be achieved; 1,0. If the choice of an item in the "ideal" scale is the same as the choice in the "present" scale, then this will be interpreted as indicating a congruency and will be scored a 0. If the item selection on the "ideal" scale is different than the item selection on the "present" scale, then it will be interpreted as indicating an incongruency and will be scored a 1. For each item then, there are six scoring alternatives to be considered in order to arrive at a single score for an item. For instance: Item 1 on the "ideal" scale and on the "present" scale offer the choices of 1 (Getting Ahead) or 3 (Getting Free). Thus, there are six different ways that congruency can be represented:

	Ideal Scale for Item 1	Present Scale for Item 1	Score
Respondent			
Choice	1	1	0
	1	3	1
	3	3	0
	3	1	1
	1	9	1
	3	9	1

If a respondent does not select either choice on the "present" scale, then it will be coded a 9 to represent a missing value and will be scored as an incongruency. Inspection of every questionnaire revealed that choices were made for each item on the "ideal" scale. The inability of a respondent to select from the item alternatives on the "present" scale will be interpreted as indicating an incongruency as he/she was able to select an ideal value for that item.

Congruency will be computed for each case by summing the score across the thirty items. The potential range of scores is from 0.00, representing complete congruency, to 30.00, representing complete incongruency. The score will then be squared. Empirical research employing difference scoring suggests that squaring the scores assists in their achieving a normal distribution (Rice et al., 1984; Rounds, et al., 1987).

The determination of congruence in this study employs two subjective measures; one reflecting the respondents perception of their ideal work values and the other reflecting the respondent's assessment of the work values attained in their work setting. French and Caplan (1972) suggest that a person's evaluation of his/her personal attributes and his/her work setting is most likely to be based on how he/she perceives the degree of fit between the two. An objective evaluation of the person's work environment then may not reflect how he/she experiences that environment and therefore may not attest to his/her experience of congruency. People may adjust their perceptions of their work setting as a

result of their experience of various environmental stressors (eg. Lazarus, 1979) and thus objective indicators of their work setting may not accurately reflect a person's subject experience. Derr (1986) suggests that determination of whether a person's work setting is appropriate for his/her work value orientation should be determined using perceptual measures, as people experience the world as they see it rather than as it may be objectively described or characterized by others.

The use of two subjective indicators in determining congruency had been supported in the empirical literature. In studies where objective and subjective ratings of a work environment were employed it was found that an observer's ratings of job characteristics explained as much of the variance in a respondents reactions to the work (eg. satisfaction and motivation to work), as did ratings made by the respondent's themselves (Jenkins, Glick & Gupta, 1983; Oldham, Hackman & Pearce, 1976; Stone & Porter, 1978). In a review of the literature addressing the relationship between ratings of job characteristics made by respondents and observers, Fried and Ferris (1987) discovered a median correlation of .63. Kulik et al., (1987), determined congruence levels by employing subjective indicators of personal growth need strength and job characteristics.

This study attempted to determine congruency levels by asking people to respond to items relating to their perception of their ideal and real (obtained) work values. The distinction between "ideal" and "real" in assessing congruency was also employed by Weinberg and Tittle (1987) in their study of job characteristics on a sample of lawyers. Their results support the use of subjective indicators in measuring both person and environmental variables, and the use of the dimension characteristics of real and ideal for ascertaining respondents,q perceptions about themselves and their work environments.

### Negative Affectivity

Negative Affectivity is a mood dispositional trait which reflects the tendency to view oneself and the world around one in a negative fashion, regardless of objective circumstance (Watson & Clark, 1984). In this study, determination of whether respondents are high or low NA will function as a moderator, i.e., it is posited that when NA is high, the relationships between work success, congruency and well-being will decrease.

While the NA construct is relatively new, scales have been developed with sound statistical properties. This study employed the PANAS in determining NA, and is located on page 235 in Appendix A. The PANAS presents respondents with twenty adjectives: ten reflect the NA dimension of mood and ten reflect the PA (Positive Affectivity) dimension of mood. As discussed previously, these two dimensions-NA and PA -are not opposites of each other but reflect two independent dimensions. The PA items in this study will act as noise and only the NA scale will be used in data analysis.

Respondents are asked to describe their feelings by selecting one of five response choices and recording it next to the item. Responses are made according to a five point Likert scale ranging from 1-"very slightly or not at all" to 5-"extremely". Scores range from 10-low NA to 50-high NA.

The PANAS Scales were developed by Watson, Clark and Tellegen (1987). The scales were derived factor analytically in an attempt to develop clear markers of NA and PA. In order for an item to be included in either scale it had to achieve a substantial loading on one dimension while achieving a zero loading on the other. The authors started with a sixty item factor analysis. The items were adopted from Zevon and Tellegen's (1982) ground breaking study of the dimensionality of mood. From this list they selected terms that had an average loading of 0.40 or greater on the relevant factor, and a secondary

loading of 0.25 or less. These criteria reduced the pool of descriptors to 12 for PA, and 25 for NA. Additional analyses resulted in ten items for each dimension.

The alpha reliabilities for the scales in the Watson et al., (1987) study were determined to be 0.85 for PA and 0.87 for NA. The correlation between the NA and PA scales was low, ranging from -.12 to -.23, indicating that the two scales share approximately 1-5% of their variance. Test-retest reliability was 0.68 for PA and 0.71 for NA.

To determine factorial validity, correlations between the PANAS Scales and the scores of the first two varimax factors were conducted and resulted in : PANAS Scale with PA 0.94, with NA -0.08; PANAS Scales with NA 0.93, with PA -0.12. External validity was also determined by correlating the PANAS Scales with other measures of affectivity. NA correlated 0.74 with the Hopkins Symptom Checklist ( a measure of distress and dysfunction) and PA correlated -0.19 with this measure. NA correlated 0.56 with the BDI ( a measure of depression) and PA correlated 0-.29 with this measure. Previous studies have demonstrated support for the external validity of this scale and are reviewed by Watson (1987). Overall, the PANAS has demonstrated good statistical integrity, and is parsimonious in design and was thus adopted for use in this study to determine NA.

Watson and Pennebaker (1987) employed the PANAS Scales in their investigation of the tendency of people to report somatic complaints in the absence of physiological ailments. They discovered that for high NA people, there existed a significantly distinct tendency to report health complaints in the absence of physical cause, while those who were low NA did not exhibit such behavior.

### Work Role Salience

Work Role Salience is defined by Greenhaus (1970) as the importance of work and career in a person's life space. The WRS scale has three dimensions: the relative

importance of work and career in the person's life; planning and thinking about a career; and general attitudes toward work. This scale consists of 27 statements to which a person expresses his/her degree of agreement or disagreement, ranging from 1-"strongly disagree" to 5-"strongly agree." It appears on pages 238-240 in Appendix A.

The WRS scale was selected for inclusion in the questionnaire, instead of other scales which also focus on work as a central life interest because this measure taps a person's commitment to his/her profession or craft regardless of their organization (Morrow, 1983). Conceptually, the WRS scale more clearly reflected the intentions of this study, which is to determine how important a person's professional work is to him/her rather than how important is their actual organizational affiliation.

The significance of the three dimensions in measuring WRS had been supported in studies conducted with students. When the WRS scale was used in research on managers, only two of the dimensions demonstrated significance in determining WRS. Results of a principle component factor analysis for the managerial sample resulted in the emergence of two factors (Greenhaus, Springhob & Souerwine, 1979). These two factors were rotated to a varimax solution. Items were considered part of a factor if they loaded at least  $\pm .40$  on the factor and less than  $\pm .40$  on the other factor.

Factor 1, which accounted for 59% of the common variance, reflected the dimension-"the importance of work in a person's life". The factor loadings of these items ranged from 0.43-0.76. Factor 2, which accounted for 46%, of the common variance reflected the dimension-"general attitudes towards work". Factor loadings ranged from 0.41-.67. The alpha reliability estimates for the factors were: Factor 1=0.77, and for Factor 2=0.74.

The WRS scale used in this study included items from the two dimensions that were significant in determining WRS for the managerial study cited above. As this study investigated professional people, the nineteen items that reflect Factor 1 and Factor 2 were included while the items that reflect the "career planning" dimension were omitted. Factor

1 was represented by twelve items, and Factor 2 was represented by eight items. Within each factor there were two or more items that require reverse scoring in an effort to control for response sets.

Previous research employing the WRS as a moderator variable had determined that it significantly influenced the relationship between occupational satisfaction and satisfaction with life in general (Greenhaus, 1974), self esteem and the selection of an ideal occupation (Greenhaus & Simon, 1976), work values and vocational indecision (Greenhaus & Simon, 1977), as well as conflicts between work and non-work roles (Greenhaus & Kopleman, 1981; Beutell & Greenhaus, 1982).

In this research, WRS is posited to moderate the work success, congruency well-being relationships; when WRS is high, work success and congruency should demonstrate a stronger relationship with well-being than when WRS is low.

## DATA ANALYSIS

In this section, the data analysis techniques used in analyzing questionnaire data and testing the research model's hypotheses are presented. The analyses that were conducted to determining the integrity of measures will be presented under the "general analyses" sub-title. Then analyses employed to test each of the research model's hypotheses are discussed.

### General Analyses

The first step of data analysis was to determine the descriptive statistics for the questionnaire. Frequency analysis, means, standard deviations and response ranges were computed for the multi-item scales and single item questions. This was done to gain insights into the data and to discover the distribution of responses for the demographic items.

The Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z Test was computed for the scales to test for normality. This is a goodness of fit test which determines whether the scores demonstrated by the sample can be thought to have come from a population having the theoretical distribution (Siegel, 1956). Table 8. reports the results of this test.

Table 8. Kolmogorov Smirnov Z Test for Normality of Questionnaire Scales

Scale	K-S Z	P Value
Well-Being/Affective	2.027	.000
Well-Being/Cognitive	1.661	.008
Well-Being/Coworker	1.912	.002
Well-Being/Mate	1.255	.078
Work Values/Ideal		
Getting Ahead	2.395	.000
Getting Secure	1.701	.007
Getting High	2.272	.001
Getting Free	1.981	.000
Getting Balanced	2.712	.000
Work Values/Obtained		
Getting Ahead	2.585	.000
Getting Secure	1.887	.003
Getting High	2.100	.000
Getting Free	2.241	.001
Getting Balanced	2.272	.000
Negative Affectivity	2.145	.000
Work Role Salience	.807	.533
Congruency	2.654	.000

Testing the null hypothesis that the scales are not normally distributed, it is apparent that the null can not be rejected. Many of the scales do not demonstrate normality in distribution. Therefore, hypothesis testing will have to include nonparametric tests along with parametric tests.

Two correlation matrices were computed. One matrix was created to determine the correlations among the questionnaire's scales. The second matrix correlated scales with their individual items and relevant single item questions. The purpose of these procedures was to test for multicollinearity so as to control for this finding when conducting hypothesis testing. Results for the analyses described in this section can be found in Appendix D. Overall, multicollinearity does not exist between scales. Scale items correlate with the scale as a whole in the expected directions.

As the hypotheses deal with individual differences, and as empirical research of this general nature controls for demographic effects, respondent age, education level and marital status served as control variables in regression analyses. Overall, these variables accounted for approximately 1% of the explained variance in the regression equations and had no effect on results.

## HYPOTHESIS TESTING

In general, the major analyses that were conducted in hypothesis testing were: Spearman Rank Correlations, First Order Partial Correlations, and Moderated Multiple Regression Analysis. The discussion which follows address each hypothesis by identifying its level of measurement, function in the research model, and consequent statistical analyses.

### Main Effects

**Hypothesis 1: There will be a positive correlation between Work Success and Well-Being, controlling for Congruency.**

Well-being and the subjective work success variables were measured with interval level, five point "equal appearing" Likert scales. The objective work success items were measured with interval scales. Questions were asked concerning the number of promotions and responsibility changes that the respondent had experienced in the past ten years, and current income level. The response choices for these items had equal ranges.

Congruency was also determined with an interval level scale. It was measured by transforming sixty items into thirty variables that were then summed into a Congruency Scale. The sum of the Congruency Scale was then squared. The potential range in response was from 0.00-900.00. The actual response range was 0.00-484.00. The low end of the scale indicated congruency and the high end of the scale indicated incongruency.

### Parametric Tests

This hypothesis proposes that as work success, (the independent variable) increases, well-being, (the dependent variable) increases and that this relationship is not affected by congruency (the control variable). Multiple Regression Analysis was utilized in testing this hypothesis. Six separate regressions were computed, one for each measure of well-being; four equations represented respondent well-being perceptions and two equations represented significant others' perception of respondent well-being.

In order to select the "best" regression equation, a backward elimination procedure was used (Draper & Smith, 1966). First, a hierarchical regression equation containing all variables was computed. Work success predictors were separately entered into the equation. The order of variable entry was determined by their correlation with well-being; the work success variable with the highest correlation was entered first and the variable with the lowest correlation was entered last. The control variable- congruency was then entered.

Once all of the variables were entered into the equation, the backward elimination procedure commenced. The significance level for retaining a variable in the equation was set at  $p < .05$ . A partial t-test value was calculated for every variable. If a variable did not achieve significance, it was dropped from the equation. The variable which was least significant was excluded from the equation first. The equation was then recomputed without the dropped variable and the process of elimination began again. The process was completed when all variables in the regression equation were significant.

If the beta weights of significant work success variables were positive, then this was interpreted as supporting Hypothesis 1. If the strength of significant beta weights did not change significantly with the inclusion of congruency in the regression equation, then this was also interpreted as supporting Hypothesis 1.

Another test of this hypothesis utilized partial correlational analysis. This analysis removes the linear effect of congruency from both the work success and well-being variables (Nie, Hull, Jenkins, Steinbrenner & Bent 1975). Zero order correlations were computed between each work success indicator, congruency and well-being. Then, a first order partial correlation was conducted, controlling for congruency. If the partial correlations between work success and well-being remain significant, then it may be inferred that these relationships are not spurious and are supportive of Hypothesis 1.

#### NonParametric Tests

As the findings from the Kolmogorov Smirnov test for normality indicated that the sample may not be normally distributed, additional nonparametric analyses were also

conducted. Spearman Rank correlations between work success and well-being were computed. If the Spearman correlations between work success and congruency concurred with the zero order correlations from the parametric test between work success and well-being, then this was interpreted as supporting Hypothesis 1.

In order to determine whether congruency influenced the work success well-being relationship, elaboration analysis (Rosenberg, 1966) was employed. The sample was grouped into four congruency categories. A frequency distribution was computed for the Congruency Scale. Groups were then created by inspecting the cumulative frequency of responses. An attempt was made to create groups that would closely reflect quartiles and that would have an appropriate sample size for analytical purposes. Quartiles were not used for categorization because the frequency distribution demonstrated that responses did not fall neatly into 25% intervals. This same procedure was used in categorizing other variables for stratified analysis.

Scale scoring resulted in "high" congruency groups having low scores and "low" congruency groups having high scores (congruency groups were created before the scores were squared for the sake of simplicity). The "high" congruency group includes respondents whose score on this measure fell between 0.00-6.00. This group represents 29.2% of the sample, and had an N of 85. The "medium high" congruency group includes respondents whose score fell between 7.00-9.00. This group represents those cases with a cumulative percent range of the 36.1% to 54.3% and had an N of 73. The "medium low" congruency group includes respondents whose score fell between 10.00-11.00. This group represents those cases with a cumulative percent range of 61.2% to 72.2% and had an N of 52. The "low" congruency group includes respondents whose score fell between 12.00-22.00. This group represents those cases with a cumulative percent range of 78.00%-99.70% and had an N of 110. In each group, Spearman correlations were computed between work success and well-being.

If the results from the partial correlation analysis and the group analysis concur, then the effects of the sample distribution should not be restrictive in analyses that assume a normal distribution of response. These results will then be interpreted as supporting Hypothesis 1.

Entrepreneurs were to be grouped for separate analysis as income may be the only objective work success indicator that is appropriate for them. However, there were only nineteen respondents in this occupational category. Analysis demonstrated that this group was too small for separate testing, thus they were not distinguished from the rest of the sample in further analysis.

Zero order, partial and Spearman correlations were also computed between the well-being scales and the significant others' perception of the respondent's well-being scales. The response format for these scales was a five point "equal appearing" Likert scale.

**Hypothesis 2: There will be a positive correlation between Congruency and Well-Being, controlling for Work Success.**

This hypothesis posits that as congruency increases, well-being increases, regardless of work success. Congruency was the independent variable, well-being was the dependent variable, and work success was the control variable. The same analyses as described for Hypothesis 1 were also employed for this hypothesis.

**Parametric Tests**

Backward elimination multiple regression analysis was conducted. Congruency was the first predictor entered into the equation. The work success control variables were then entered individually. When all of the variables were in the equation the backward elimination process began. If congruency demonstrated a significant relationship with well-being, and if the strength of the congruency beta weight was not affected by the

presence of the work success variables, then this was interpreted as supporting Hypothesis 2.

First order partial correlational analysis controlled for each of the work success indicators individually. If the results from the zero order correlations and between congruency and well-being were similar to the partial correlations when work success was controlled, then this was interpreted as supporting Hypothesis 2.

### NonParametric Tests

The sample was grouped into categories reflecting different levels of work success. Self perceived work success was categorized into three groups. The "low" success group included cases with responses between 1-2. This reflected 14.9% of the sample and had an N of 16. The "medium" success group reflected those cases with a response of 3.00, representing 39.5% of the cumulative response, a valid percent of 34.7% and had an N of 114. The "high" success group included cases with responses from 4-5. This group represents the cumulative response rate of 85.7% to 100.00%, the valid percents of 46.2% and 14.3%, and had an N of 119.

The number of promotions that a person had experienced in the past ten years was categorized into three groups. The "low" group reflected those cases with a response of 1.00. This group represented 21.8% of sample and had an N of 71. The "medium" group reflected those cases with a response of 2.00. This represented 68.6% of the cumulative percent, a valid percent of 46.8%, and an N of 152. The "high" group reflected those cases with responses from 3.00-5.00. This group represented a cumulative percent range from 95.4%-99.7%.

Income level was categorized into four groups. The "low" group reflected those cases with a response of 1.00, representing 18.5% sample and had an N of 61. The "medium low" group reflected those cases with a response of 2.00. This group represents 40.9% of the cumulative percent, a valid percent of 22.4% and had an N of 74. The "medium high" group reflected those cases with a response from 3.00-4.00. This group

represented 54.2% to 69.4% of the cumulative percent and had an N of 99. The "high" group reflected those cases with responses from 5.00-6.00. This group represents the cumulative response range of 81.5% to 100.00%, and had an N of 101.

Spearman correlations were computed between congruency and well-being in each level of each work success indicator. If the work success group analysis demonstrated that the Spearman correlations between congruency and well-being were similar to the first order partial correlations, then it was interpreted as supporting Hypothesis 2.

Partial and Spearman correlations were computed between work success and significant others' perception of respondent well-being. These results were then compared to the results of respondent self-reported well-being.

#### Interaction Hypothesis for Work Success and Congruency

**Hypothesis 3: The positive relationship between Work Success and Well-Being will be stronger when Congruency is high than when Congruency is low.**

This hypothesis suggests that an interaction between work success and congruency exists. It is posited that the positive relationship between work success and well-being will be enhanced when congruency is high. Multiple Regression Analyses were utilized in testing this hypothesis. Six equations were computed; one for each well-being measure. Each work success predictor was entered into the regression equation individually. The variables were entered in descending order of their correlation with well-being. Congruency was then entered. Four interaction variables were created from the cross-product between each work success predictor and congruency. These new variables were the last entries into the equation. Once all of the variables were entered, a backward elimination procedure was employed until all variables in the regression equation were significant.

If significant interactions demonstrated that work success and congruency did not increase together, and if these interactions did not enhance well-being, then this was

interpreted as supporting Hypothesis 3. If significant interactions demonstrated that well-being was enhanced to a greater extent when work success and congruency increased concurrently, then this was also interpreted as supporting Hypothesis 3.

#### Interaction Hypotheses for Gender

**Hypothesis 4: The interaction between Work Success and Congruency will be have a greater influence on Well-Being for Males than for Females.**

This hypothesis suggests that the interaction between work success and congruency and its relationship with well-being is moderated by gender. The work success/congruency interaction is posited to have a greater impact on male well-being than on female well-being. Thus, while a low level of congruency may significantly impact the success- well-being relationship for men, for women, a low level of congruency may have less of a significant impact on the success, well-being relationship.

Moderated Multiple Regression Analysis was conducted to test whether gender had a moderating effect on the interaction between work success and congruency and its relationship with well-being. This method of analysis was selected as it allows for the investigation of the combined effects of independent variables (work success and congruency) on the dependent variable (well-being), and the unique relationship of each independent variable with a dependent variable (Cohen & Cohen, 1975). Six regression equations were computed to test the hypothesis; one for each measure of respondent self-reported well-being and two for significant others' perception of respondent well-being.

Gender, the moderator variable, is a nominal level or qualitative variable. It is dichotomous in nature, whereby membership in one group, i.e., female, excludes membership in another group, i.e., male. Gender was coded into a dummy or indicator variable where 0=female and 1=male (Cohen & Cohen, 1975; Neter, Wasserman &

Kunter, 1985). This indicator variable was used to test for the null hypothesis that the slope of the regression equation for males and females is the same.

A single regression equation was computed (instead of separate equations for each gender) for two reasons. First, inferences pertaining to the Y intercept and the slope can be made more precisely by working with one regression model containing an indicator variable as more degrees of freedom may be associated with the mean squared error (Cohen & Cohen, 1975 p.176; Neter, et al., 1985 p.335 ). Also, the regression equation with gender serving as an indicator variable yields the same response function as fitting separate regression equations for males and females. An advantage of this method is that tests for comparing the regression functions for males and females are tests of regression coefficients in a general linear model (Neter, et al., 1985). The slope of the interaction term will indicate the difference in the Y intercept (well-being) between the category of the variable coded 1 (males), and the category coded 0 (females).

A regression model was developed and tested independently for each of the six well-being measures. The regression equation contained a variety of terms. Gender, the moderator variable, was entered in the equation first. The work success variables were entered next, followed by congruency. Then interaction terms were introduced into the model by including cross product terms among: each work success variable and congruency, congruency and gender, each work success variable and gender, and each work success variable x congruency x gender. These interaction terms were included in order to determine whether gender moderated the main effects variables, and to discover whether work success, congruency and gender account for the variance in well-being over and above any additive combination of their separate effects (Cohen & Cohen, 1975).

In order to select the "best" regression equation to test Hypothesis 3, a backward elimination procedure was used (Draper & Smith, 1966). A second set of regression equations was computed and the backward elimination was also conducted. However, the interaction terms were dropped first to determine whether the remaining variables would

demonstrate different results, i.e., the interaction terms may have had a suppressor or distorting effect on the other variables (Rosenberg, 1966). In another set of analyses, congruency was dropped first to determine whether it had any confounding effects on the independent variables. In all analyses, the resulting equations were identical.

From the single regression equation that emerged, the Y intercept for females (coded 0) and males (coded 1), and the beta weights for significant variables and interactions were computed. The constant term was the Y intercept for the 0 group or for females. If the indicator variable-gender, was significant, then it was added to this constant and represented the Y intercept for males.

If a variable was a significant predictor (X), and the interaction of that variable with gender (XG) was insignificant, then the beta weight (B) for that variable did not differ for females and males i.e.,  $B_fX = B_mX$ . If, on the other hand, XG was significant, then the beta weights for females and males were determined as follows; Females=  $B_fX$ , Males= $B_fX+B_mXG$ . The beta weight for the significant interaction between X and gender, representing the group coded 1(males), was added to the beta weight for the variable when gender was coded 0, representing females.

If the interaction of a variable with the moderator variable was significant, then this was interpreted as indicating that the difference in beta weights for work success/congruency between males and females was significant. If the sign of the beta weight was positive, it was interpreted as indicating that the mean of Y for males was higher than for females, while a negative beta weight was interpreted as indicating that the mean of Y for males was smaller than that for females.

If there were more significant interactions for males than for females between work success and congruency, then this was interpreted as supporting Hypothesis 4. If the beta weight sign of significant interactions was positive for females (indicating that the interaction did not predict an increase in well-being) and negative for males (indicating that

the interaction did predict an increase in well-being), then this was also interpreted as supporting Hypothesis 4.

Other statistical tests for this hypothesis were also conducted. First order partial correlational analysis was conducted for sub-samples of men and women with work success as the independent variable, well-being as the dependent variable, and congruency as the control variable.

Nonparametric determination as to whether the positive correlation between work success and well-being varied as a function of congruency level followed the same procedure as that described in Hypothesis 1. For both males and females Spearman correlations were computed between work success and well-being in each congruency level group.

If the correlations between work success and well-being were stronger for males in the zero order correlations and in the high level congruency Spearman correlations, than they were for females, then this was interpreted as supporting Hypothesis 4. If the correlations between zero order and first order partials, and Spearman correlations in different congruency levels did not differ significantly for females, then this was also interpreted as supporting Hypothesis 4.

First order partial correlation analysis was also conducted for both genders to determine the relationship between congruency and well-being. Then, following the procedure described in Hypothesis 2, Spearman correlations were computed for males and females to determine the correlation between congruency and well-being across different work success levels.

If congruency correlated with well-being when work success was controlled and in different work success levels for males, then this was interpreted as supporting Hypothesis 4. If these correlations were weaker for females, then this was also interpreted as supporting Hypothesis 4.

**Hypothesis 5: The positive relationships proposed in Hypotheses 1,2, 3 and 4 will not differ across different sets of work-values.**

Five work value scales were created by combining their respective scale items. Each of these items was tested for inter-item scale correlations and for multicollinearity between scales. Once the integrity of the work value scales was substantiated, then a work value profile was computed for each respondent in the sample. This profile was used to identify the strongest work value set for each respondent. Respondents were then stratified into a work value category. Hypotheses 1, 2, 3 and 4 were then tested for work value group. If the results of these hypothesis tests were similar between sample findings and each work value group then they were interpreted as supporting Hypothesis 5.

Interaction Hypotheses for Negative Affectivity and Work Role Salience

**Hypothesis 6a: The positive relationship between Work Success and Well-Being will be greater for people who are low in Negative Affectivity than for those for whom Negative Affectivity is high.**

This hypothesis suggests that the relationship between work success and well-being will be lower when NA is high than when NA is low, regardless of the level of congruency. NA was determined by an interval level measure with an "equal appearing" Likert scale. Parametric and nonparametric correlations and Moderated Multiple Regression Analysis were utilized in testing this hypothesis.

Moderated Multiple Regression Analysis was conducted. Six regression equations were computed; one for each of the respondent self-report well-being measures and one for each of the respondent's significant other's perception of their well-being. The backward elimination procedure was employed. The independent variables were the work success indicators, congruency was the control variable and NA was the moderator variable. As NA may be considered a "qualitative" variable (Neter, 1985), and to facilitate determining whether NA moderates the relationship between work success and well-being (Cohen &

Cohen, 1975), it was treated as an indicator variable. "Low NA" reflected those respondents whose score on the PANAS was from 12-29 and were coded 0. "High NA" reflected those respondents whose score was between 30-59 and was coded 1. The rationale for this procedure and the reporting of Y intercepts and beta weights for low and high NA respondents are the same as those discussed for Hypotheses 4.

Work success predictors were entered into the equation followed by congruency and NA. Interaction terms between NA and the independent variables were created and were the final entry in the regression model. Significant interactions with positive beta weights indicated that work success variables were predictors of increases in well-being for high NA respondents. Significant interactions with negative beta weights indicated that work success variables were not significant predictors of increases in well-being for high NA respondents.

If the interactions between NA and work success variables were significant and if the beta weights were negative, then this was interpreted as supporting Hypothesis 6a. If the regression equation demonstrated that the interactions between NA and work success were positive, and the beta weights for these interactions were stronger in magnitude than the beta weights for Low NA respondents, then this was interpreted as not supporting Hypothesis 6a.

Partial correlation and segmented analyses were also conducted. The NA variable was categorized into low, medium and high level groups. This elaboration model allowed these statistics to take into account the potential effects of the moderator variable (Babbie, 1979; Rosenberg, 1966) on the correlations between work success and well-being. The "low" NA group reflected those cases with responses of 10.00-13.00 on the PANAS. This group represented 24.1% of the sample and had an N of 59. The medium NA group reflected those cases with responses from 14.00-19.00. This group represented the cumulative percent range 32.6% to 65.0% and had an N of 109. The high NA group

represented those cases with responses from 20.00-39.00. This group represented the cumulative percent range 70.4%-100.0% and had an N of 134.

Partial correlation analysis was conducted in each NA level. The independent variables were work success, the dependent variable was well-being, and the control variable was congruency. Spearman correlations were also computed in each NA level. If the zero order, partial and Spearman correlations between work success and well-being demonstrated significance in the low NA level to a greater extent than for the medium and high NA levels, then this was interpreted as supporting Hypothesis 6a.

**Hypothesis 7a: The positive relationship between Work Success and Well-Being will be greater for people who are high in Work Role Salience than for those for whom Work Role Salience is low.**

This hypothesis suggests that WRS will moderate the relationship between work success, the independent variable (well-being) and the dependent variable when controlling for congruency. The WRS variable was measured by a scale with a five point Likert format. The analyses conducted to test this hypothesis are identical in design to those described for Hypothesis 6a.

Six MMRA's were conducted. WRS, the moderator variable, was coded as an indicator variable. Respondents who scored from 29-60 on the WRS scale were coded as 0, and represented low WRS. Respondents who scored from 63-82 on the WRS scale were coded as 1, and represented high WRS. Positive beta weights for significant interactions were interpreted as indicating that as work success increased, increases in well-being were predicted for high WRS respondents. Negative beta weights for interactions were interpreted as indicating that increases in well-being were not predicted for high WRS respondents.

If the interactions between WRS and work success were significant and positive, and the magnitude of these beta weights were greater than the beta weights for low WRS

respondents, then this was interpreted as supporting Hypothesis 7a. If the beta weights of significant interactions were negative, then this was interpreted as not supporting Hypothesis 7a.

WRS was categorized into four groups for additional parametric and nonparametric analyses. The "low" WRS level reflected those cases with scores 29.00-57.00 on the WRS scale. This group represented 24.1% of sample and had an N of 79. The "medium low" WRS group reflected those cases with scores 58.00-62.00. This group represented the cumulative response range 30.0% to 50.5% and had an N of 85. The "medium high" WRS group reflected those cases with scores 63.00-66.00. This group represented the cumulative percent range 55.4% to 72.8%, and had an N of 72. The "high" WRS group represented scores 67.00-82.00. This group represented the cumulative percent range 78.3% to 99.7% and had an N of 95.

**Hypothesis 6b: The positive relationship between Congruency and Well-Being will be greater for people who are low in Negative Affectivity than for those for whom Negative Affectivity is high.**

The analysis discussed for testing hypothesis 6a. was also conducted for Hypothesis 6b. In this analysis, congruency was the independent variable, well-being was the dependent variable and work success were the control variables. In MMRA, the indicator variable NA was interacted with congruency. A significant interaction with a positive beta weight was interpreted as indicating that as the score on the congruency scale increased, reflecting low congruency, well-being was predicted to increase for high NA respondents. A negative beta weight for a significant interaction was interpreted as indicating that as the score on the congruency scale decreased, reflecting high congruency, well-being was predicted to increase for high NA respondents.

If the interaction between NA and congruency was significant and positive, then this was interpreted as supporting Hypothesis 6b. If the significant interaction had a negative beta weight, and if its magnitude was stronger than the congruency beta weight for low NA respondents, then this was interpreted as not supporting Hypothesis 6b.

**Hypothesis 7b: The positive relationship between Congruency and Well-Being will be greater for people who are high in Work Role Salience than for those for whom Work Role Salience is low.**

The testing of this hypothesis is identical to the analyses described for Hypothesis 6b. In this analysis congruency was the independent variable, well-being was the dependent variable, and work success was the control variable. MMRA analysis was conducted for each well-being measure. WRS was coded as an indicator variable and was interacted with congruency. A significant interaction with a positive beta weight was interpreted as indicating that as incongruency decreased, well-being was predicted to increase for high WRS respondents. A significant interaction with a negative beta weight

was interpreted as indicating that as congruency increased, well-being was predicted to increase for high WRS respondents.

If the interaction between congruency and WRS was significant, and if the beta weight was negative and had a stronger magnitude than the congruency beta weight for low WRS respondents, then this was interpreted as supporting Hypothesis 7b. If the interaction was significant and had a positive beta weight, then this was interpreted as not supporting Hypothesis 7b.

**Hypothesis 6c: The relationship between Well-Being and the Work Success, Congruency interaction will be greater for people who are low in Negative Affectivity than for those for whom Negative Affectivity is high.**

This hypothesis suggests that NA has a moderating effect on the interaction between work success and congruency (the independent variables) and their relationship with well-being, the dependent variable. Moderated Multiple Regression Analysis was conducted. NA was recoded as an indicator variable.

All independent variables, and NA were entered in the regression equations. Various interactions were also introduced into the regression equations. Interactions between NA and each work success variable and NA and congruency were computed and entered. All work success variables and congruency were interacted. Then, triple interactions among work success variables, congruency, and NA were computed and introduced into the regression equations. A backward elimination procedure was employed. Significant interactions between work success variables and congruency reflected the salience of these new variables in predicting well-being for low NA respondents. Significant triple interactions reflected the importance of the interaction between work success and congruency in predicting well-being for high NA respondents. Calculation of beta weights for low and high NA respondents was the same as described for Hypothesis 4.

If work success/congruency/NA interactions were significant and had positive beta weights, then this was interpreted as indicating that as the score on the congruency scale increased, reflecting a decrease in congruency, and the score on the work success variables decreased, then they would not predict increases in well-being for high NA respondents. If work success/congruency/NA interactions were significant and had a negative beta weight, then this was interpreted as indicating that as the score on the congruency scale decreased, reflecting an increase in congruency, and the score on the work success variables increased, then well-being was predicted to increase for high NA respondents. The same interpretations were employed for interactions for low NA respondents.

If the triple interactions were significant and positive for high NA respondents, then this was interpreted as supporting Hypothesis 6c. If the work success/congruency interactions were significant and positive for low NA, then this was interpreted as not supporting Hypothesis 6c. If the triple interactions for high NA individuals were negative, and their magnitudes were greater than interactions between work success and congruency for low NA respondents, then this was interpreted as not supporting Hypothesis 5c. If these interactions were significant and negative for low NA respondents, then this was interpreted as supporting Hypothesis 6c.

**Hypothesis 7c: The relationship between Well-Being and the Work Success, Congruency interaction will be greater for people who are high in Work Role Salience than for those for whom Work Role Salience is low.**

This hypothesis suggests that WRS will moderate the interaction of work success and congruency (the independent variable) and their relationship with well being, the dependent variable. The design for testing this hypothesis was identical to the analysis employed in testing Hypothesis 6c. In this analysis, WRS was the indicator variable and was used in creating all necessary interaction terms.

If triple interactions among work success, congruency and WRS were positive and significant for high WRS respondents, then this was interpreted as not supporting Hypothesis 7c. If the interactions between work success and congruency were significant and positive for low WRS respondents, then this was interpreted as supporting Hypothesis 7c. If the triple interactions for high WRS respondents were significant and had a negative beta weight, then this was interpreted as supporting Hypothesis 7c. If the interactions between work success and congruency were significant for low WRS respondents, and if the magnitudes of these interactions were greater than for those of high WRS respondents, then this was interpreted as not supporting Hypothesis 7c.

**Hypothesis 6d: The relationships proposed in Hypotheses 6a, 6b, and 6c will not differ across different sets of work values.**

This hypothesis suggests that the relationships proposed for the NA moderator variable should persist regardless of work value set. This hypothesis was tested by creating sample groups that represented one of the different work value sets. Then, the MMRA's used in testing these hypotheses were computed for each work value group. If the results from the value group analyses concurred with the results from the sample analyses, then this was interpreted as supporting Hypothesis 6d.

**Hypothesis 7d: The relationship proposed in Hypotheses 7a,7b, and 7c will not differ across different sets of work values.**

As the purpose of this hypothesis is identical to that of Hypothesis 6d., the same analyses were used in testing Hypothesis 7d.

This chapter presented the methodology employed in this research. The chapter which follows will present the results of the general analyses and hypothesis testing .

## CHAPTER FOUR: RESEARCH RESULTS

This chapter reports the results of the statistical analyses described in Chapter Three. The preliminary analyses will be presented first, followed by hypothesis testing.

### PRELIMINARY ANALYSES

#### Correlational Analyses

Two general correlation analyses were computed. First, each scale was correlated with the others in order to determine whether multicollinearity was present. The results of this analysis (see Appendix D) demonstrates that while the dependent variable measures correlate with each other, e.g., the correlate between cognitive and affective well-being is .62, suggesting that they are measuring a similar concept, the strength of these relationships do not warrant the conclusion that they are tapping the same well-being dimension. The remaining scales also demonstrate independence of measurement, as none of the scales approach correlations of .800, which would suggest that multicollinearity exists (Nie, Hull, Jenkins, Steinbrenner & Bent, 1975 p. 340).

The second correlation matrix represents the relationship of each item with its respective total scale. This analysis can also be found in Appendix D. While these relationships were inspected for multicollinearity, they were also inspected to determine if any of the items were poor indicators of the concept they were assumed to tap. If correlations between the item and its scale were below .200, they were deleted from the scale before any additional analyses were conducted (Fruchter, 1979).

Only one item in one scale required scrutiny. The "importance of work dimension" of the Work Role Salience Scale had ten items. The ninth question demonstrated a correlation of .027 with the other questions. The question asked: "It is more important to be liked by your fellow man, devote your energies to the betterment of man, and be at least of some help to someone than to have a job in your chosen field of interest, be devoted to it, and be a success at it". It appears that this may be a loaded question. It asks respondents if work is more important than the investment of one's energy in a socially

beneficial manner. Respondents did not answer this question in a consistent manner, resulting in its insignificance. The item was dropped from the scale before any other analyses were conducted.

### Distribution Effects Tests

As discussed in the previous chapter, this study's sample is a composite of three different sets of respondents. The first set consists of Executive MBA students who were solicited by mail and professional people who were solicited during their commute to business districts. These groups of respondents are combined as both were asked by the researcher to complete the questionnaire at their convenience and to return it by mail. Corporate employees who were asked to participate in the survey by their superiors comprise the second set of respondents. The third set consists of members of business associations who were asked to participate in the survey at their meetings. A MANOVA was conducted in order to determine whether these three different sampling methods influenced the study's findings. The results of this analysis appears in Table 9.

Table 9. Summary Results of MANOVA, Testing for the Effect of Survey Distribution Method on the Research Model.

<b>Multivariate Tests of Significance<sup>^</sup></b>			
Statistic	Value	F Statistic	Significance
Pillais	.045	1.507	.152
Hotellings	.047	1.527	.145
Wilks	.955	1.517	.148
<b>Univariate F-Test</b>			
Variable		F Statistic	Significance
Well-Being Affective		1.803	.167
Well-Being Cognitive		1.997	.138
General Cognitive Well-Being		3.287	.115
General Affective Well-Being		5.027	.007

<sup>^</sup> These tests were conducted to measure the value of the overall effect of distribution method on the research model.

Testing the hypothesis that the distribution methods had an effect on the testing of the research model, it is apparent that this hypothesis may be rejected with the exception of the General Affective Measure. For the other three measures of the dependent variable, multivariate tests of the overall effect of distribution method and univariate tests for each measure of well-being are nonsignificant.

In order to identify where the differences in distribution method appear significant for this dependent variable, a Chi Square Analysis was conducted between the General Affective Well-Being question and distribution method. The results of this analysis appears in Table 10.

Table 10. Results of Crosstabulation Analysis of General Affective Well-Being by Distribution Method ( results reported in % ).

General Affective Well-Being Items/	Distribution Method			Row Total
	Solicitation	Company	Association	
Not At All Satisfied (1)	—	100.0 4.4	—	1.9
A Little Satisfied (2)	23.8 3.8	66.7 10.4	9.5 3.6	6.5
Somewhat Satisfied (3)	35.4 38.9	44.4 47.4	20.1 52.7	44.9
Very Satisfied (4)	49.2 45.8	34.4 31.1	16.4 36.4	38.0
Extremely Satisfied (5)	53.6 11.5	32.1 6.7	14.3 7.3	8.7
Column Total	40.8	42.1	17.1	

Chi-Square=21.195 (DF,8)  $p < .006$

A Chi Square analysis of the differences between response alternatives for the general affective well-being measure and distribution method was found to be significant. It appears that for the sample of corporate employees, in response to the question-"Taking all things into account, how would you say you are feeling these days", there is a higher frequency of low scores then for the other two distribution methods.

Survey results were inspected to ascertain whether the findings for general affective well-being were noticeably different than for the other well-being measures. In a majority of analyses, independent correlates and predictor variables appear to demonstrate similar results for all well-being measures. In a few instances, the perceived success variable demonstrates stronger beta weights in predicting general affective well-being. However, perceived success is also significant in the other well-being equations.

As the general affective well-being measure demonstrates lower results for corporate employees and higher results for solicited respondents, work value groups were inspected to determine the distribution of these individuals within each work value set. If

these respondents are represented in select value sets, then they have the potential to confound findings. Inspection of respondent classification into a value set and their membership in a distribution method demonstrates that these two groups of respondents are distributed across all value categories and thus should not significantly confound the results of hypothesis tests.

Although the general affective well-being measure demonstrates a significant difference for the samples, the results of hypothesis tests for the sample and work value groups do not display unique findings for the general affective well-being measure. Thus it is included in hypothesis testing and the reporting of results.

## HYPOTHESIS TESTING ANALYSES

This section tests the hypotheses proposed in Chapter Two utilizing the statistical analyses described in Chapter 3. Each of this study's hypotheses was subject to both nonparametric and parametric testing as some of the scales used in the survey are not normally distributed. Results for correlational parametric tests are reported in Appendix E, and results for nonparametric tests are reported in Appendix F. These two sets of analyses demonstrate similar findings and they also concur with the findings from regression analyses. As regression analysis provides for stronger statistical evaluation of relationships between independent and dependent variables, i.e., it allows for the determination of the simultaneous and independent effects of multiple predictor variables on a dependent variable, and identifies the strength of each independent variable in predicting a dependent variable, the regression equation will serve as the point of hypothesis evaluation in the following discussion. The presentation of results will employ summary tables but only significant results will be displayed in order to assist in clear reporting of findings.

**Hypothesis 1: There will be a positive relationship between Work Success and Well-Being.**

Table 11. presents the results of this hypothesis utilizing Multiple Regression Analysis to determine the impact of work success variables, controlling for congruency, on self report and significant others' reports of respondent well-being.

Table 11. Summary Results of the Regression of Well-Being on Work Success

Well-Being	R Square	Y Intercept	Statistic	F	Significance
Affective (N=312)	.175	36.702	46.874		.000
Cognitive (N=312)	.197	14.667	13.175		.000
General Affective (N=325)	.230	2.043	32.716		.000
General Cognitive (N=325)	.325	1.739	35.166		.000
Co-Worker (N=254)	.112	9.871	27.895		.000
Mate (N=243)	.083	10.051	20.049		.000

Well-Being/	General					
	Affective	Cognitive	Affective	Cognitive	Co-Worker	Mate
Perceived Success	.418***	.381***	.419***	.491***	.335***	.288***
Income Level	—	-.160**	—	—	—	—
# Responsibility Changes	—	.139*	—	—	—	—
Congruency^	—	-.150*	-.149*	-.194***	—	—

Nonsignificant Predictors: Job Title, # Promotions

\* p < .05 \*\* p < .01 \*\*\* p < .001 ^ control variable

The results from this analysis lend partial support for Hypothesis 1. It is apparent that the subjective work success variable defined as self-perceived success provides this support. Regression Analysis demonstrates that this variable has a positive relationship with all well-being measures. Two objective work success variables are predictors of cognitive well-being exclusively. Responsibility changes demonstrates a positive relationship and income level demonstrates a negative relationship. The other objective indicators i.e., job title and number of promotions, do not significantly influence well-being.

**Hypothesis 2: There will be a positive relationship between Congruency and Well-Being.**

In this hypothesis, the relationship between congruency and well-being is evaluated utilizing Regression Analysis, controlling for work success variables. Results appear in Table 12.

Table 12. Summary Results of the Regression of Well-Being on Congruency

<u>Well-Being</u>	<u>R Square</u>	<u>Y Intercept</u>	<u>Statistic</u>	<u>Significance</u>
Affective (N=312)	.024	33.432	5.464	.020
Cognitive (N=312)	.048	12.157	11.181	.002
General Affective (N=325)	.065	2.032	15.440	.001
General Cognitive (N=325)	.101	2.009	24.931	.000
Co-Worker (N=254)	.004	6.231	21.862	.919
Mate (N=243)	.083	7.051	20.049	.694

<u>Well-Being/</u>	<u>Affective</u>	<u>Cognitive</u>	<u>General</u>	<u>Co-Worker</u>	<u>Mate</u>
<u>Congruency</u>					
	—	-.146*	-.157*	-.195***	—

\* p < .05 \*\* p < .01 \*\*\* p < .001 ^ control variable

Congruency was measured through difference scoring whereby a score of 0 between two items reflected congruency and a score of 1 between two items reflected an incongruency. These scores were summed for each respondent across thirty items. The higher the score on the congruency scale, the lower the level of congruency. Therefore, negative beta weights between congruency and well-being indicate the expected relationship, i.e., the score on the congruency scale increases-indicating a lower level of congruency-the score on the well-being scales decreases. This is interpreted as indicating that as the level of congruency increases i.e., the actual score on the scale decreases, the level of well-being increases.

Congruency demonstrates a significant relationship with three well-being measures. The strength of this relationship is with the general cognitive well-being measure.

However, these beta weights are much lower than those found between perceived success and well-being in Hypothesis 1.

Although the relationships between congruency and different measures of well-being vary to some degree, overall the findings from these analyses tend to support Hypothesis 2.

**Hypothesis 3: The relationship between Work Success and Well-Being will be positive and stronger when Congruency is high than when Congruency is low.**

Table 13 reports the findings from the regression of well-being on each work success/congruency interaction independently.

Table 13 Summary Results of the Regression of Well-Being on the Independent Interactions of Work Success and Congruency.

Well-Being	Multiple R	R Square	Significance		Beta	Significance	
			F	F		T	T
<b>Income Level/Congruency</b>							
Cognitive	.221	.049	11.521	.001	-.221	-3.394	.001
Affective	.096	.009	2.086	.150	-.095	-1.444	.150
General Cognitive	.206	.042	9.981	.002	-.206	-3.159	.002
General Affective	.172	.030	6.899	.009	-.172	-2.627	.009
Co-Worker	.021	.000	.096	.756	-.021	-.310	.756
Mate	.092	.009	1.944	.164	-.093	-1.394	.164
<b># Promotions/Congruency</b>							
Cognitive	.208	.043	10.148	.001	-.208	-3.186	.001
Affective	.117	.013	3.114	.079	-.117	-1.765	.079
General Cognitive	.308	.095	23.484	.000	-.308	-4.846	.000
General Affective	.247	.061	14.646	.000	-.248	-3.827	.000
Co-Worker	.025	.001	.147	.701	-.026	-.384	.701
Mate	.077	.006	1.323	.251	-.077	-1.150	.251
<b># Responsibility Change/Congruency</b>							
Cognitive	.096	.009	2.062	.159	-.096	-1.436	.152
Affective	.108	.012	2.618	.107	-.108	-1.618	.107
General Cognitive	.221	.049	11.346	.001	-.221	-3.368	.001
General Affective	.185	.034	7.857	.005	-.185	-2.803	.005
Co-Worker	.020	.000	.088	.767	-.019	-.296	.767
Mate	.093	.009	1.943	.165	-.093	-1.394	.165
<b>Perceived Success/Congruency</b>							
Cognitive	.066	.004	1.00	.318	-.066	-1.00	.318
Affective	.032	.001	.224	.636	-.031	-.473	.636
General Cognitive	.103	.011	2.401	.122	-.103	-1.551	.122
General Affective	.062	.003	.871	.352	-.060	-.933	.352
Co-Worker	.046	.002	.477	.491	.046	.690	.491
Mate	.007	.000	.011	.913	-.007	-.109	.913

Table 13 demonstrates that the interaction between income level and congruency and number of promotions and congruency is significant in the cognitive well-being equations and the general affective well-being equation. The interaction between perceived success and congruency is significant in the mate well-being equation exclusively.

Table 14 reports the results of the regression of well-being on work success, congruency and their interactions.

Table 14. Summary Results of the Regression of Well-Being on the Interaction Between Work Success and Congruency.

Well-Being	R Square	Y Intercept	Statistic	F	Significance
Affective (N=330)	.198	35.945	68.791		.000
Cognitive (N=330)	.197	14.326	16.870		.000
General Affective (N=330)	.248	1.943	45.768		.000
General Cognitive (N=330)	.300	1.710	59.302		.000
Co-Worker (N=254)	.132	11.305	8.302		.000
Mate (N=243)	.111	8.395	6.838		.000

Well-Being/	Affective	Cognitive	Affective	Cognitive	Co-Worker	Mate
Perceived Success	.445***	.378***	.432***	.467***	.317***	.281***
Congruency	—	—	—	—	-.281***	-.391***
# Promotions	—	—	—	—	—	.247**
# Promotion/Congruency	—	-.186***	-.189***	-.221***	—	-.490*
# Responsibility Changes	—	.168**	—	—	-.217*	—
Responsibility/Congruency	—	—	—	—	.401*	—
Income Level	—	-.117*	—	—	—	—
Income/Congruency	—	-.198**	—	—	—	—

Nonsignificant Predictors: Job Title, Job Title/Congruency, Perceived Success/Congruency

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

Perceived success consistently demonstrates a positive relationship with well-being. Congruency is a nonsignificant predictor for self reports of well-being, however it demonstrates a positive relationship with significant others' well-being assessment. The interaction between perceived success and congruency is nonsignificant in this analysis.

The number of promotions that the respondent has experienced in the past ten years demonstrates a positive relationship with mate's well-being assessment exclusively. However, the interaction between promotions and congruency demonstrates a positive relationship with well-being, except for the cognitive and co-worker equations. These findings indicate that although promotions do not influence well-being for the respondent when considered independently, as promotions and congruency increase simultaneously, well-being is enhanced.

The number of responsibility changes that the respondent has experienced in the past ten years demonstrates a positive relationship with cognitive well-being and a negative relationship with co-worker well-being. When responsibility changes and congruency increase simultaneously, co-worker perception of respondent well-being decreases.

Income level demonstrates a negative relationship with cognitive well-being exclusively. When income level and congruency increase simultaneously, cognitive well-being also increases.

### Summary for Hypothesis 3

The findings for the interactions between number of promotions and congruency and income level and congruency appear to support the hypothesis. When considered independently, number of promotions does not demonstrate a significant relationship with respondent well-being and income level demonstrates a negative relationship. However, when congruency interacts with these variables, their relationships with respondent well-being becomes positive. Responsibility changes and perceived success do not significantly interact with congruency for respondents. Thus, Hypothesis 3 is partially supported.

**Hypothesis 4: The interaction between Work Success and Congruency will have a greater influence on Well-Being for Males than for Females.**

Hypothesis 4 proposes that the relationships between work success, congruency and well-being will differ as a function of gender. The interaction between work success and congruency on well-being is posited to be stronger for men than for women.

Hypothesis testing employed Moderated Multiple Regression Analysis in which gender, the moderator variable, functions as an indicator or dummy variable. Females were coded 0, representing the reference group, and Males were coded 1. Thus, when differences in significant beta weights are evident it indicates that a difference between males and females exists. Table 15 presents the results of the MMRA.

**Table 16. Summary Results of the Regression of Well-Being on the Interaction Among Work Success, Congruency, and Gender.**

Well-Being	R Square	Female Y Intercept	Male Y Intercept	F Statistic	Significance
Affective (N=291)	.273	47.062	45.915	16.805	.000
Cognitive (N=287)	.247	20.675	19.331	10.898	.000
General Affective (N=291)	.357	3.411	2.478	17.279	.000
General Cognitive (N=288)	.303	2.457	1.653	14.683	.000
Co-Worker (N=237)	.146	11.682	11.535	7.370	.000
Male (N=250)	.156	8.289	8.289	4.317	.000

Variable\Well-Being	Affective		Cognitive		General Affective		General Cognitive		Co-Worker		Male	
	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M
Perceived Success	.264**	1.236***	.044	1.216***	.152	.943**	.152	.950***	.308*	.308*	.155	.716***
Congruency	—	—	—	—	—	—	-.709**	-.709**	-.179*	-.179*	—	—
Perceived Success/Congruency	.259	-.048*	.372*	-.131*	—	—	.866*	-.335*	—	—	—	—
# Promotions	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	.498*	-.027*	—
# Promotion/Congruency	-.300**	-.265***	-.769***	-.338**	—	—	-.703**	-.040	—	—	-.819**	-.359*
# Responsibility Changes	—	—	—	—	-.804***	-.804***	—	—	-.154*	-.154*	.113*	.080*
Responsibility/Congruency	—	—	.062	-.398**	-.408*	-.171*	-.059	-.127*	-.121	.339*	—	—
Income Level	—	—	—	—	—	—	.256*	-.171*	—	—	.075	-.158*

Insignificant Predictors: Job Title, Job Title/Congruency, Income/Congruency

\* p < .05 \*\* p < .01 \*\*\* p < .001

Due to the special nature of the congruency measure, interpretation of interactions requires special consideration. As discussed previously, congruency is measured through difference scoring whereby a low score suggests congruency and a high score suggests a lack of congruency. In interpreting correlations between congruency and well-being, a negative correlation is deemed to indicate that as the congruency score decreases, indicating high congruency, well-being increases.

The same interpretation is relevant for beta weights. A negative beta weight between congruency and well-being indicates that as the score on the congruency measure increases, indicating a decrease in congruency, well-being does not increase. This also may be interpreted as suggesting that as the score on the congruency measure decreases, indicating an increase in congruency, well-being increases. Thus, for the sake of clarity, interpretation of all beta weights will be expressed in the language of the hypotheses which specifically identify relationships for congruency.

Six regression equations were computed; one for each measure of well-being. The significance of predictor variables in each of these equations is not uniform. Significant predictors are noted by an asterisk. Nonsignificant predictors are indicated by a slash. If a variable was significant in an equation for one gender and not the other, the beta weight for the nonsignificant variable is recorded in this case for comparative purposes. This method of reporting is utilized in all regression analyses throughout this chapter.

Increases in perceived success result in increases in affective well-being and co-worker perception of respondent well-being for females. Perceived success is significant and stronger in all well-being equations for males than for females. As congruency increases, general cognitive well-being and co-worker perception of respondent well-being increases for both genders. When perceived success and congruency interact, the beta weight is negative for males and positive for females. This indicates an increase in well-being for men and a decrease in well-being for women.

Number of promotions results in an increase in mate's perception of female respondent well-being and a slight decrease in male well-being. When number of promotions and congruency interact, well-being increases to a greater extent for women than for men.

The number of responsibility changes that a respondent has experienced in a ten year period demonstrates similar results for both genders. As responsibility changes increase, equivalent decreases in general affective well-being and in co-worker perception of respondent well-being are evident. In the mate well-being equation, the finding is in the opposite direction; as responsibility changes increase women's well-being increases to a greater extent than men's.

The interaction between responsibility changes and congruency is moderated by gender. For males, if responsibility changes and congruency increase concurrently, then well-being increases. This interaction is also significant for men in the co-worker equation. However, the opposite finding surfaces suggesting that the respondent's co-worker does not perceive well-being to increase for men when responsibilities and congruency do not increase simultaneously.

When income levels increase, an increase in well-being accrues for women while a decrease accrues for men. This finding is also significant for males in the mate well-being equation. Income level did not significantly interact with congruency for either gender.

#### Summary for Hypothesis 4

The findings reported in Table 16 suggest that gender does have a moderating effect on the relationships among work success, congruency and well-being. While some of the results from MMRA support the hypothesis, others do not.

The hypothesis proposes that the interaction between work success and congruency will have a more advantageous effect on men's well-being than on women's. This is supported by the findings of the interaction between perceived success and congruency and

responsibility changes and congruency. For males in both cases, these work success variables and congruency increase simultaneously, and well-being increases. For females, these interactions do not result in increasing well-being.

The interaction between number of promotions and congruency is significant for both genders. The magnitude of this variable is much stronger for women than for men and thus does not support the hypothesis. Therefore, Hypothesis 4 is partially supported.

**Hypothesis 5: The relationships proposed in Hypotheses 1,2,3 and 4 will not differ across different work value groups.**

This hypothesis explores the effect that different work value groups may have on the results of Hypotheses 1, 2, 3 and 4. Hypothesis 5 was tested by creating different sets of respondents according to their dominant work value group and conducting each of the Regression Analyses that were conducted for the relevant hypotheses.

The first step in this analysis was to categorize the sample into one of five mutually exclusive work value groups. The "current" work value scale was employed for this purpose. For each respondent, the results of this forced choice scale were used to identify frequencies of work value choices. The work value category with the greatest frequency classified the respondent with a particular group. Four work value sets: getting secure, getting free, getting high and getting balanced were established for hypothesis testing. The getting ahead set was not used as only sixteen respondents were exclusively identified with this value set. Sixty-four respondents demonstrated inclusion in more than one value category. They were classified into a multiple group and were not included in hypothesis testing.

Tables 16 and 17 describe the groups demographically and according to frequency of response to work success variables. The mixed group is included in these tables for comparative purposes. The analyses conducted for Hypotheses 1, 2,3 and 4 are conducted for each work value group. Results are reported for each group individually and are compared with those for the total sample. Tables 18-21 presents these tests of Hypothesis 5.

Table 16. Comparative Demographic Description of Work Value Groups (Percent)

Demographic	Secure (32)	Free (31)	High (61)	Balanced (127)	Multiple Group (64)
<b>Gender</b>					
Female	43.8	32.3	31.7	49.6	29.7
Male	53.1	67.7	65.1	49.6	68.8
Missing Data	3.1	0.0	3.2	0.8	1.5
<b>Marital Status</b>					
Single	28.1	12.9	20.6	12.6	14.1
Cohabitation	3.1	3.2	7.9	7.9	7.8
Married	65.6	71.1	61.9	68.5	73.4
Divorced	3.2	6.5	1.6	9.4	3.1
Missing Data	0.0	6.3	8.0	1.6	1.6
<b>Age</b>					
25-34	50.0	12.9	23.8	33.1	32.8
35-44	37.5	38.7	49.2	37.0	34.4
45-54	3.1	16.1	20.6	22.8	18.8
55-64	3.1	19.4	4.8	6.3	12.5
65+	0.0	12.9	0.0	.8	1.5
Missing Data	6.3	0.0	1.6	0.0	0.0
<b># Children</b>					
0	62.5	41.9	50.8	42.5	43.8
1	6.3	3.2	19.0	13.4	3.1
2	28.1	32.3	23.8	26.0	28.1
3	3.1	12.9	6.4	11.1	15.6
4	0.0	6.5	0.0	4.7	7.8
5+	0.0	3.2	0.0	.8	1.6
Missing Data	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.5	0.0
<b>Education</b>					
High School	12.5	16.1	3.2	7.9	3.1
Some College	12.5	9.7	1.6	15.7	10.9
Associates	9.4	0.0	6.3	7.9	7.8
Bachelors	34.4	16.1	27.0	30.7	46.9
Masters	21.8	22.6	47.6	27.6	20.4
Ph.D. or Equ.	9.4	35.5	14.3	10.2	10.9
<b>Residence</b>					
Urban	25.0	29.0	27.0	29.9	25.0
Suburban	65.6	58.1	60.3	63.0	67.2
Rural	3.1	9.7	12.7	5.5	6.3
Missing Data	6.3	3.2	0.0	1.6	1.5

The getting secure, getting free, and getting high work value groups have more male than female respondents. While the genders are equally represented in the getting balanced group, there are nearly three times as many males as females in the multiple work value group.

The getting secure group has the highest percentage of single and young (ages 25-34) respondents, and two thirds of these people have no children. The getting balanced group has the highest representation of divorced and middle aged respondents (ages 45-55). The getting high group has the lowest percentage of divorced respondents and the highest representation in the 35-44 age group. Nearly three quarters of the getting free and multiple groups are married. The getting free group has the highest representation of older respondents and the multiple group has the most number of children.

Over one third of the getting free group has a doctorate or equivalent degree. The getting high and multiple groups have the largest representation of people with bachelors and masters degrees. Most respondents in all groups live in the suburbs with the largest number of rural dwellers in the getting high group.

Table 17. Work Success Description of Work Value Groups (Percent)

Work Success Indicator	Secure (32)	Free (31)	High (61)	Balanced (127)	Multiple Group (64)
<b># Promotions</b>					
0	18.6	38.7	15.9	18.1	26.6
1-3	50.1	35.5	39.1	53.5	42.2
4-6	25.0	16.1	38.1	22.8	26.6
7-9	3.1	6.5	3.2	2.4	3.1
10+	3.2	3.2	1.6	.8	1.5
Missing Data	0.0	0.0	2.1	2.4	0.0
<b># Responsibility</b>					
0	28.1	38.7	39.7	30.7	35.9
1-2	40.6	54.8	41.3	52.7	42.2
4-6	12.5	3.2	11.1	15.0	9.4
7-9	12.5	0.0	6.3	.8	6.3
10+	3.1	0.0	1.6	.8	1.6
Missing Data	3.2	3.3	0.0	0.0	4.6
<b>Income Level*</b>					
\$25-35	21.9	16.1	12.7	23.6	15.6
\$36-45	15.6	12.9	17.5	29.9	18.8
\$46-55	12.5	9.7	9.5	16.5	12.5
\$56-75	9.4	32.3	19.0	11.8	14.1
\$76-99	21.8	12.9	17.5	4.7	17.2
\$100+	18.8	16.1	23.8	13.5	21.8
<b>Self Success</b>					
Not at all	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.6	3.1
Somewhat	9.4	6.5	1.6	3.9	1.6
Successful	50.0	35.5	17.5	40.9	32.8
Very	34.3	45.2	63.4	40.9	40.6
Extremely	6.3	12.8	17.5	12.7	21.9

\* Income is reported in thousands of dollars.

Respondents in the getting free work value group report the lowest number of promotions in the sample. The highest number of responsibility changes is in the getting secure group. Income levels are lowest for the getting balanced group and highest for the getting high and multiple groups. Self-perceived success is highest among respondents in the getting free group. While the multiple group has the highest percentage of respondents reporting that they do not perceive themselves as successful, the getting secure group has the highest representation of respondents reporting that they are only "somewhat" successful.

Table 18. Summary Results of the Regression of Well-Being on Work Success for  
Work Value Groups. (Hypothesis)

**Getting Secure**

<u>Well-Being</u>		<u>R Square</u>	<u>Y Intercept</u>	<u>F</u>	
				<u>Statistic</u>	<u>Significance</u>
Affective (N=32)		.232	23.000	8.138	.008
Cognitive (N=32)		.169	9.815	5.497	.027
General Affective (N=32)		.489	1.005	12.426	.000
General Cognitive (N=32)		.217	.824	7.499	.011
				General	
<u>Well-Being/</u>		<u>Affective</u>	<u>Cognitive</u>	<u>Affective</u>	<u>Cognitive</u>
Perceived Success		.481**	.411*	.593***	.466**
Congruency^		—	—	-.319*	—

Nonsignificant Predictors: Job Title, # Promotions, # Responsibility Changes, Income Level

**Getting Free**

<u>Well-Being</u>		<u>R Square</u>	<u>Y Intercept</u>	<u>F</u>	
				<u>Statistic</u>	<u>Significance</u>
Affective (N=31)		.408	28.302	17.260	.000
Cognitive (N=31)		.312	10.420	11.361	.002
General Affective (N=31)		.444	.604	19.967	.000
General Cognitive (N=31)		.314	.808	11.449	.002
				General	
<u>Well-Being/</u>		<u>Affective</u>	<u>Cognitive</u>	<u>Affective</u>	<u>Cognitive</u>
Perceived Success		.639***	.559***	.666***	.560***

Nonsignificant Predictors: Job Title, # Promotions, # Responsibility Changes, Income Level

**Getting High**

<u>Well-Being</u>		<u>R Square</u>	<u>Y Intercept</u>	<u>F</u>	
				<u>Statistic</u>	<u>Significance</u>
Affective (N=63)		.518	22.081	29.088	.000
Cognitive (N=63)		.316	7.455	25.367	.000
General Affective (N=63)		.238	.966	17.230	.000
General Cognitive (N=63)		.363	.630	15.412	.000
				General	
<u>Well-Being/</u>		<u>Affective</u>	<u>Cognitive</u>	<u>Affective</u>	<u>Cognitive</u>
Perceived Success		.662***	.562***	.488***	.538***
Income Level		.256***	—	—	.249*

Nonsignificant Predictors: Job Title, # Promotions, # Responsibility Changes

**Getting Balanced**

<u>Well-Being</u>		<u>R Square</u>	<u>Y Intercept</u>	<u>F</u>	
				<u>Statistic</u>	<u>Significance</u>
Affective (N=122)		.215	37.614	28.229	.000
Cognitive (N=122)		.132	16.281	15.639	.000
General Affective (N=122)		.221	1.919	29.182	.000
General Cognitive (N=122)		.328	1.991	24.895	.000
				General	
<u>Well-Being/</u>		<u>Affective</u>	<u>Cognitive</u>	<u>Affective</u>	<u>Cognitive</u>
Perceived Success		.464***	.363***	.469***	.482***
Congruency		—	—	—	-.199*

Nonsignificant Predictors: Job Title, # Promotions, # Responsibility Changes, Income Level

Table 18 reports the results of the regression of well-being on work success for work value groups. Overall, the beta weights for perceived success are stronger for individual work value groups than for the sample as a whole. Income level is a significant variable for getting high respondents. Otherwise, the other work success variables are nonsignificant in these regression equations.

Congruency, the control variable, is significant in one well-being equation for getting secure and getting balanced respondents. However, the magnitude of the congruency beta weight is weaker than the perceived success beta weight.

Table 19. Summary Results of the Regression of Well-Being on Congruency for  
Work Value Groups (Hypothesis 2)

**Getting Secure**

<u>Well-Being</u>		<u>R Square</u>	<u>Y Intercept</u>	<u>F</u> <u>Statistic</u>	<u>Significance</u>
Affective	(N=32)	.002	48.829	.063	.803
Cognitive	(N=32)	.077	21.390	2.238	.146
General Affective	(N=32)	.140	3.722	4.412	.045
General Cognitive	(N=32)	.052	2.99	1.468	.236

<u>Well-Being/</u>	<u>Affective</u>	<u>Cognitive</u>	<u>General</u>	
<u>Congruency</u>			<u>Affective</u>	<u>Cognitive</u>
	-.048	-.277	-.347*	-.227

**Getting Free**

<u>Well-Being</u>		<u>R Square</u>	<u>Y Intercept</u>	<u>F</u> <u>Statistic</u>	<u>Significance</u>
Affective	(N=31)	.085	52.674	5.134	.027
Cognitive	(N=31)	.003	19.794	.091	.766
General Affective	(N=31)	.017	3.330	.448	.509
General Cognitive	(N=31)	.172	3.682	5.194	.031

<u>Well-Being/</u>	<u>Affective</u>	<u>Cognitive</u>	<u>General</u>	
<u>Congruency</u>			<u>Affective</u>	<u>Cognitive</u>
	.292*	-.060	-.133	-.414*

**Getting High**

<u>Well-Being</u>		<u>R Square</u>	<u>Y Intercept</u>	<u>F</u> <u>Statistic</u>	<u>Significance</u>
Affective	(N=63)	.006	54.971	.169	.684
Cognitive	(N=63)	.030	20.053	1.704	.197
General Affective	(N=63)	.032	3.270	1.867	.177
General Cognitive	(N=63)	.081	3.189	4.854	.031

<u>Well-Being/</u>	<u>Affective</u>	<u>Cognitive</u>	<u>General</u>	
<u>Congruency</u>			<u>Affective</u>	<u>Cognitive</u>
	-.082	.173	.181	.284*

**Getting Balanced**

<u>Well-Being</u>		<u>R Square</u>	<u>Y Intercept</u>	<u>F</u> <u>Statistic</u>	<u>Significance</u>
Affective	(N=125)	.057	56.344	6.261	.014
Cognitive	(N=125)	.058	22.737	6.399	.013
General Affective	(N=125)	.065	3.834	7.152	.008
General Cognitive	(N=125)	.116	3.800	13.488	.000

<u>Well-Being/</u>	<u>Affective</u>	<u>Cognitive</u>	<u>General</u>	
<u>Congruency</u>			<u>Affective</u>	<u>Cognitive</u>
	-.239*	.242*	.255**	.340***

\* p < .05 \*\* p < .01 \*\*\* p < .001

Table 19 presents the significant findings from the regression of well-being on congruency, excluding work success control variables. Congruency demonstrates significant relationships in all well-being equations for getting balanced respondents exclusively. For getting secure and getting high respondents, congruency is significant in one well-being equation, while for getting free respondents congruency is significant in two well-being equations.

When the control variables were added to the equations and the backward elimination procedure to arrive at the best equation was employed, congruency became a nonsignificant variable in the majority of equations. In the general affective equation for getting secure respondents, and in the general cognitive equation for getting balanced respondents, congruency remained a significant variable.

Table 20 Summary Results of the Regression of Well-Being on the Interaction Between Work Success and Congruency for Work Value Groups (Hypothesis 3)

### Getting Secure

Well-Being	R Square	Y Intercept	F Statistic	Significance
Affective (N=32)	.232	22.998	8.132	.008
Cognitive (N=32)	.169	9.816	5.407	.027
Gen. Affective (N=32)	.522	.521	14.177	.000
Gen. Cognitive (N=32)	.217	.823	7.499	.010

Variable/Well-Being	General			
	Affective	Cognitive	Affective	Cognitive
Perceived Success	.481**	.411*	.718***	.466***
Perceived Success/Congruency	—	—	-.379**	—

Nonsignificant Predictors: Job Title, Congruency, Job Title/Congruency, # Promotions, # Promotions/Congruency, # Responsibility Changes, # Responsibility Changes/Congruency, Income Level, Income Level/Congruency

### Getting Free

Well-Being	R Square	Y Intercept	F Statistic	Significance
Affective (N=31)	.614	20.477	8.764	.000
Cognitive (N=31)	.312	10.420	11.361	.002
Gen. Affective (N=31)	.444	.604	19.966	.000
Gen. Cognitive (N=31)	.311	.808	11.449	.002

Variable/Well-Being	General			
	Affective	Cognitive	Affective	Cognitive
Perceived Success	.515**	.559**	.666***	.561**
Perceived Success/Congruency	.886**	—	—	—
# Promotions	.415*	—	—	—
# Promotions/Congruency	-.859**	—	—	—

Nonsignificant Predictors: Job Title, Congruency, Job Title/Congruency, # Responsibility Changes, # Responsibility Changes/Congruency, Income Level, Income Level/Congruency

### Getting High

Well-Being	R Square	Y Intercept	F Statistic	Significance
Affective (N=63)	.519	22.081	29.088	.000
Cognitive (N=63)	.562	7.455	25.367	.000
Gen. Affective (N=63)	.362	1.003	7.363	.000
Gen. Cognitive (N=63)	.363	.630	15.413	.000

**Getting High**

Variable/Well-Being	Affective	Cognitive	Affective	Cognitive
Perceived Success	.662***	.562***	.498***	.538***
Income Level	.256**	—	—	.249*
# Promotions/Congruency	—	—	.694**	—
# Responsibility/Congruency	—	—	.329*	—
Income Level/Congruency	—	—	.487**	—

Nonsignificant Predictors: Job Title, Congruency, Job Title/Congruency, # Responsibility Changes

**Getting Balanced**

Well-Being	R Square	Y Intercept	F Statistic	Significance
Affective (N=125)	.215	37.613	22.228	.000
Cognitive (N=125)	.132	16.281	15.639	.000
Gen. Affective (N=125)	.230	3.692	15.201	.000
Gen. Cognitive (N=125)	.328	1.991	24.895	.000

Variable/Well-Being	Affective	Cognitive	General	
Perceived Success	.463***	.363***	—	.482***
Perceived Success/Congruency	—	—	1.022***	—
Congruency	—	—	-1.193***	-.199*

Nonsignificant Predictors: Job Title, Job Title/Congruency, # Promotions, # Promotions/Congruency, # Responsibility Changes, # Responsibility Changes/Congruency, Income Level, Income Level/Congruency

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\* p < .05 \*\* p < .01 \*\*\* p < .001

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The multiple regression equations for work value groups explain more of the variance in well-being than the regressions for the unsegmented sample. The sample finding that perceived success has a positive relationship with all well-being measures concurs with the findings for all work value groups. For the sample, congruency does not significantly influence self reports of well-being. Work value group analyses concur, except for the getting balanced group which demonstrates that as congruency increases, general cognitive well-being increases.

While the interaction between perceived success and congruency has a nonsignificant effect on well-being in sample analysis, it is significant for getting secure, getting free and getting balanced respondents. For getting secure respondents, the beta weight is negative and indicates that as perceived success and congruency increase simultaneously, general affective well-being increases. On the other hand, for getting free and balanced respondents the beta weight is positive. This indicates that when perceived success and congruency do not increase concurrently, well-being is not enhanced.

The number of promotions that a person has experienced in the past ten years does not significantly influence well-being for the sample as a whole. However, for getting free respondents, as the number of promotions increases, affective well-being increases. The interaction between promotions and congruency significantly predicts an increase in well-being for the unstratified sample and for getting free and getting high respondents.

While the number of responsibility changes that a person has experienced in the past ten years demonstrates a positive relationship with cognitive well-being for the sample, it is nonsignificant for work value groups. When responsibility changes and congruency interact, well-being is not enhanced for getting high respondents.

Income level demonstrates a positive relationship with well-being for getting high respondents and a negative relationship with well-being for the sample as a whole. When income and congruency interact, an increase in well-being is demonstrated for the sample, while the opposite occurs for getting high respondents.

Overall, the findings for perceived success and the interaction between promotions and congruency for work value groups concur with the total sample. However, the findings for other variables differ between work value groups and the sample. Thus, Hypothesis 5 is only partially supported in this analysis.

**Table 21. Summary Results of the Regression of Well-Being on the Interaction Among Work Success, Congruency and Gender for Work Value Groups.**

**Getting Secure**

Well-Being		R Square	Female Y Intercept	Male Y Intercept	F Statistic	Significance
Affective (N=30)		.707	-14.064	-14.064	6.904	.000
Cognitive (N=30)		.627	-7.509	-7.509	3.991	.006
General Affective (N=31)		.702	-2.497	-2.497	5.584	.001
General Cognitive (N=31)		.567	-.095	-.095	3.749	.009

Variable\Well-being	Affective		Cognitive		General Affective		General Cognitive	
	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M
Perceived Success	2.2129***	-.106***	2.009***	.365*	1.927***	1.062**	.678***	-.148**
Congruency	2.535***	2.535***	2.289*	2.289*	1.811*	1.811*	1.171**	1.171**
Perceived Success/Congruency	-3.382**	.334	-3.283**	-.246	-2.944*	.269	—	—
# Promotions	-.659**	.608**	-.670**	.456*	-.428*	.291*	—	—
Income Level	—	—	-.046	-.801*	-.595*	-.595*	—	—
Income Level/Congruency	.576***	-.383**	-.059	1.111**	1.058**	.110	1.159*	-.190*
# Responsibility Changes	—	—	—	—	—	—	.723*	.723*
Responsibility/Congruency	—	—	—	—	—	—	-1.209*	.159

Insignificant Predictors: Job Title, Job Title/Congruency, # Promotions/Congruency

\* p < .05 \*\* p < .01 \*\*\* p < .001

**Getting Free**

Well-Being		R Square	Female Y Intercept	Male Y Intercept	F Statistic	Significance
Affective (N=27)		.729	18.078	18.078	11.304	.000
Cognitive (N=28)		.565	4.864	4.864	7.157	.001
General Affective (N=28)		.732	-.577	-.577	7.400	.000
General Cognitive (N=28)		.410	1.865	1.865	8.331	.002

**Getting Balanced**

Well-Being	R Square	Female Y Intercept	Male Y Intercept	F Statistic	Significance
Affective (N=120)	.344	48.575	47.163	7.180	.000
Cognitive (N=116)	.295	23.339	21.569	6.756	.000
General Affective (N=118)	.356	3.900	2.058	8.957	.000
General Cognitive (N=117)	.356	2.057	2.057	18.556	.000

Variable\Well-being	Affective		Cognitive		General Affective		General Cognitive	
	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M
Perceived Success	.318*	1.727**	-.025	1.554**	.105	1.858**	.465*	.465*
Perceived Success/Congruency	-.077	-.749**	—	—	—	—	—	—
# Promotion/Congruency	-.802	.842**	-.587**	.167*	-.679*	.190*	—	—
Income Level/Congruency	-.012	-.393*	.404*	-.242*	.529*	-.251*	—	—
Responsibility/Congruency	—	—	—	—	—	—	-.395*	-.112*

Insignificant Predictors: Job Title, Congruency, Job Title/Congruency, # Promotions, Income level, # Responsibility Changes.

\* p < .05 \*\* p < .01

**Getting Free**

Variable\Well-being	Affective		Cognitive		General Affective		General Cognitive	
	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M
Perceived Success	.546*	.546*	.754*	.754*	.727**	.727*	.387*	.387*
Perceived Success/Congruency	.928**	1.646**	—	—	—	—	—	—
# Promotions	.506*	.506*	-.044	.597*	-.009	.500*	—	—
# Promotion/Congruency	-.762**	-1.143**	.624*	-.049*	.455*	-.907**	.049	-.354*
Income Level	—	—	—	—	-.322*	-.322*	—	—
Income Level/Congruency	—	—	—	—	.359	1.478**	—	—

Insignificant Predictors: Job Title, Congruency, Job Title/Congruency, # Responsibility Changes, Responsibility/Congruency.

\* P < .05 \*\* p < .01 \*\*\* p < .001

**Getting High**

Well-Being	R Square	Female Y Intercept	Male Y Intercept	F Statistic	Significance
Affective (N=62)	.602	5.104	7.059	18.899	.000
Cognitive (N=59)	.458	.467	3.275	8.277	.000
General Affective (N=63)	.543	-1.077	.715	5.226	.000
General Cognitive (N=60)	.386	.491	.491	16.337	.000

Variable\Well-being	Affective		Cognitive		General Affective		General Cognitive	
	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M
Perceived Success	1.079**	-.999**	.927**	1.300**	.848**	-1.002*	.571*	.571*
Congruency	—	—	-.518**	-.518**	—	—	—	—
Perceived Success/Congruency	—	—	1.397**	-2.186**	—	—	—	—
# Promotion/Congruency	—	—	—	—	-.312*	-.895*	—	—
Income Level	—	—	—	—	-.728*	.029*	.203*	.203*
Income Level/Congruency	-.035	.226*	—	—	-.949**	.258*	—	—
# Responsibility Changes	—	—	—	—	-.299*	-.299*	—	—
Responsibility/Congruency	—	—	—	—	.608*	.807	—	—

Insignificant Predictors: Job Title, Job Title/Congruency, # Promotions.

\* p < .05 \*\* p < .01

Table 21 presents the findings from the MMRA's conducted for each work value set of respondents. Reporting of significant findings will focus on the general similarities and differences among sample and work value group findings.

Total sample regressions indicate that as perceived success increases, well-being increases for males. The same finding is evident for getting free and getting balanced men. Getting secure and getting high men demonstrate similar findings in two well-being equations, however in the other two well-being equations perceived success has a negative relationship with well-being.

For women in the unsegmented sample, perceived success demonstrates a positive relationship with cognitive well-being, and the magnitude of this beta weight is weaker than that for males. In the getting secure and getting free work value groups, as perceived success increases all well-being equations increase to a greater extent for females than for males. This finding is also evident in two well-being equations for getting high and getting balanced women.

As congruency increases, cognitive well-being increases for the total sample and for getting high respondents. In the unsegmented sample, when perceived success and congruency interact, well-being increases for males and decreases for females. This finding is also apparent in the high work value group and for getting balanced males. For getting secure females, as perceived success and congruency increase, well-being increases and this interaction is nonsignificant for males. In the getting free group, when perceived success and congruency do not increase together, well-being decreases to a greater extent for women than for men.

For getting secure men and getting free men and women, as promotions increase, well-being increases. For getting secure women, promotions demonstrate a negative relationship with well-being. This variable is not significant for the sample as a whole. However, for the total sample, when promotions and congruency increase simultaneously,

well-being increases to a greater extent for women than for men. While findings for getting balanced respondents concur with the sample's, findings for getting free and getting high respondents are reversed; increases in well-being are greater for males than for females.

For getting high respondents and the total sample, responsibility changes has a negative relationship with general affective well-being. For getting secure respondents, this relationship is positive. When responsibility changes and congruency increase concurrently, well-being increases to a greater extent for females than for males in the total sample and in the getting secure and getting balanced work value groups. In the getting high value category, well-being decreases to a greater extent for males than for females.

For the unsegmented sample, income level demonstrates an increase in well-being for females and a decrease for males. Well-being decreases in equal magnitudes for men and women in the getting secure value group and increases similarly in the getting high group. When income and congruency increase concurrently, well-being increases for getting high women and for getting balanced men. Dissimilar increases in income and congruency result in greater decreases in male than female well-being for getting free respondents, decreasing well-being for getting high males and getting balanced females.

Table 22 compares the general findings of Hypothesis 4 for the sample and work value groups. For each predictor, the results for the sample are presented. Then, the results for the work value groups are compared with sample findings. If they concur, then this is indicated by the word "same." If the findings for value groups and the sample differ, then this is indicated by the word "different." If the variable was nonsignificant in predicting well-being for value groups then this is indicated by "ns". The purpose of this table is not to repeat the findings described previously, but to provide a parsimonious mechanism for evaluating whether Hypothesis 5 is supported by this test.

Table 22. Comparative Results for the Sample and Work Value Groups of the Regression of Well-Being on the Interaction Among Work Success, Congruency and Gender.

Significant Sample Findings	Work Value Groups			
	Secure	Free	High	Balanced
<b>Perceived Success:</b> stronger increase in well-being for males than females.	different <sup>a</sup>	different <sup>b</sup>	different <sup>c</sup>	same
<b>Congruency:</b> equal increase in well-being for both genders.	same	ns	same	ns
<b>Perceived Success/Congruency:</b> increase in male well-being, decrease in female well-being.	different <sup>d</sup>	different <sup>e</sup>	same	same <sup>f</sup>
<b># Promotions:</b> increase in female well-being, decrease in male's. <sup>^</sup>	different <sup>g</sup>	different <sup>h</sup>	ns	ns
<b># Promotions/Congruency:</b> greater increase in female well-being than in male's.	ns	different <sup>i</sup>	different <sup>j</sup>	same
<b># Responsibility Changes:</b> equal decrease in well-being.	different <sup>b</sup>	ns	same	ns
<b>Responsibility/Congruency:</b> increase in male well-being, inconclusive for females.	different <sup>k</sup>	ns	different <sup>l</sup>	different <sup>m</sup>
<b>Income Level:</b> increase in female well-being, decrease in male's.	different <sup>n</sup>	different <sup>o</sup>	different <sup>i</sup>	ns
<b>Income Level/Congruency:</b> nonsignificant	different <sup>g</sup>	different <sup>p</sup>	different <sup>q</sup>	different <sup>g</sup>

<sup>^</sup> significant in the male well-being equation only.

<sup>a</sup> stronger for females than for males.

<sup>b</sup> equal increase in well-being for males and females.

<sup>c</sup> increase in well-being for females, decrease and increase in well-being for males.

<sup>d</sup> increase in well-being for females, decrease in well-being for males.

<sup>e</sup> greater decrease in well-being for males than for females.

<sup>f</sup> result similar for males, nonsignificant for females.

<sup>g</sup> decrease in well-being for females, increase in well-being for males.

<sup>h</sup> nonsignificant or increase in well-being for females, increase in well-being for males.

<sup>i</sup> increase in well-being for males, increase and decrease in well-being for females.

<sup>j</sup> greater increase in well-being for males than for females.

<sup>k</sup> increase in well-being for females, nonsignificant for males.

<sup>l</sup> decrease in well-being for females, nonsignificant for males.

<sup>m</sup> greater increase in well-being for females than for males.

<sup>n</sup> nonsignificant or decrease in well-being for females, decrease in well-being for males.

<sup>o</sup> equal decrease in well-being for males and females.

<sup>p</sup> nonsignificant for females, decrease in well-being for males.

<sup>q</sup> nonsignificant or increase in well-being for females, decrease in well-being for males.

It is apparent from Table 22 that not only do the results of work value groups differ from the sample, but they also differ among each other. The getting high and balanced value groups demonstrate the most similarity in findings to the sample. However, there are many more differences than similarities in results. Thus, Hypothesis 4 is not supported in this analysis.

### Summary for Hypothesis 5.

Hypothesis 5 posits that the findings from Hypotheses 1-4 will not differ for work value groups. This hypothesis was tested by conducting the analyses for Hypotheses 1-4 for each work value group.

The findings of the test of Hypothesis 1 demonstrates that perceived success is the only work success indicator that consistently demonstrates a relationship with well-being and supports Hypothesis 5. Hypothesis 2 test results indicate that congruency has a significant relationship with all well-being equations for getting balanced respondents. For the other work value groups, congruency is significant in one well-being equation. When work success control variables are added to the equation, in the majority of the cases, congruency becomes nonsignificant. This finding does not concur with the total sample and thus does not support Hypothesis 5. Results from tests of Hypothesis 3 reveal that perceived success and the interaction between promotions and congruency are the only variables that consistently demonstrate similar findings as the total sample. Also, multiple regressions for work value groups explain more of the variance in well-being than total sample regressions. These findings do not support Hypothesis 5.

Results from MMRA in testing Hypothesis 4 demonstrate that the work value set equations explain a greater amount of the variance in well-being than do the sample regressions. The findings for work value groups do not consistently concur with the findings for the sample as a whole and do not support Hypothesis 5.

Overall, hypothesis testing demonstrates that in all cases, with the exception of Hypothesis 1, that work value groups demonstrate different findings than does the total sample. Thus, Hypothesis 5 is not supported.

**Hypothesis 6a: The positive relationship between Work Success and Well-Being will be greater for people who are low in Negative Affectivity than those for whom Negative Affectivity is high.**

This hypothesis evaluates the effect that NA, a personality trait reflecting negative emotionality, may have on well-being. It posits that NA will moderate the work success well-being relationship, i.e., that work success will be a stronger predictor of well-being for respondents who are low in NA than for those who are high NA. MMRA is employed to test this hypothesis. NA, the moderator variable, is coded as an indicator variable. Low NA respondents are coded 0 and represent the reference group. High NA respondents are coded 1. If significant work success beta weights are equivalent for low and high NA respondents, then this indicates that NA does not significantly moderate the predictor variables. If NA does significantly moderate predictor variables, then significant work success beta weights will differ for low and high NA respondents.

Table 23 presents the summary results of the regression of well-being on each interaction between work success and NA. This analysis allows the independent determination of the significance of the interaction between each work success variable and NA in determining well-being.

Table 23. Summary Results of the Regression of Well-Being on Interactions Between Negative Affectivity and Work Success.

Well-Being	Multiple R	R Square	F	Significance F	Beta	Significance T	Significance T
<b>Income Level/Negative Affectivity</b>							
Cognitive	.18411	.03390	9.683	.0021	-.1841	-.3112	.0021
Affective	.08789	.00772	2.148	.1439	-.0878	-1.466	.1439
General Cognitive	.08368	.00700	1.946	.1641	-.0836	-1.395	.1641
General Affective	.12888	.01661	4.661	.0317	-.1289	-2.159	.0317
<b># Promotions/Negative Affectivity</b>							
Cognitive	.20164	.04066	11.6974	.0007	-.2016	-3.420	.0007
Affective	.19017	.03617	10.3562	.0014	-.1902	-3.218	.0000
General Cognitive	.27907	.07788	23.3095	.0000	-.2791	-4.828	.0000
General Affective	.32242	.10395	32.0193	.0000	-.3224	-5.659	.0000
<b># Responsibility Change/Negative Affectivity</b>							
Cognitive	.12789	.01636	4.5892	.0330	-.1279	-2.142	.0330
Affective	.19439	.03779	10.8393	.0011	-.1944	-3.292	.0011
General Cognitive	.23484	.05515	16.1095	.0001	-.2348	-4.014	.0001
General Affective	.28525	.08137	24.4471	.0000	-.2852	-4.944	.0000
<b>Perceived Success/Negative Affectivity</b>							
Cognitive	.02645	.00070	.19326	.6606	-.0246	-.440	.6606
Affective	.00188	.00000	.00097	.9752	-.0019	-.031	.9752
General Cognitive	.03510	.00123	.34047	.5600	.0351	.583	.5600
General Affective	.05983	.00358	.00138	.3203	-.0599	-.996	.3203

Table 23 indicates that the regression of well-being on the interaction between income level and NA is significant for cognitive well-being and general affective well-being. The beta weights for these interactions are negative. This indicates that for high NA respondents, income level does not predict an increase in well-being.

All of the interactions between number of promotions and NA and responsibility change and NA are significant. These beta weights are also negative, suggesting that for high NA respondents, these work success variables result in a decrease in well-being. These interactions explain a higher level of variance in well-being than do the other work success variables. The interactions between perceived success and NA are nonsignificant.

**Table 24. Summary Results of the Regression of Well-Being on the Interaction Between Work Success and Negative Affectivity.**

Well-Being		R Square	Low NA Y Intercept	High NA Y Intercept	F Statistic	Significance
Affective	(N=295)	.233	30.697	30.481	37.944	.000
Cognitive	(N=292)	.248	15.479	15.479	17.641	.000
General Affective	(N=300)	.346	2.219	2.219	36.300	.000
General Cognitive	(N=305)	.332	2.004	2.004	34.308	.000
Co-Worker	(N=237)	.094	10.131	10.131	23.028	.000
Mate	(N=250)	.112	10.798	10.619	13.908	.000

Variable\Well-Being	Affective		Cognitive		General Affective		General Cognitive		Co-Worker		Mate	
	Low NA	High NA	Low NA	High NA	Low NA	High NA	Low NA	High NA	Low NA	High NA	Low NA	High NA
Perceived Success	.481***	.262**	.329***	.329***	.349*	.349*	.381***	.381***	.308**	.308**	.262**	.262**
# Responsibility Changes	—	—	.322***	.066**	.452***	-.080***	.338***	.031***	—	—	—	—
Income Level	—	—	-.142	-.287*	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Congruency^	—	—	-.137*	-.137*	-.135**	-.135**	-.204***	-.204***	—	—	—	—

Insignificant Predictors: Job Title, # Promotions.

\* p < .05 \*\* p < .01 \*\*\* p < .001 ^ control variable

Table 24 presents the results of the six MMRA used in testing the hypothesis. It is apparent that increasing perceived success results in increasing well-being, and in five equations perceived success not moderated by NA. However, for affective well-being, perceived success is moderated by NA as respondents in the low level display a stronger increase in well-being than do respondents in the high NA level. For the affective well-being equation, perceived success demonstrates an exclusive relationship with well-being.

Number of responsibility changes is moderated by NA. For respondents who are low NA, as the number of responsibility changes increases, well-being increases. For high NA respondents on the other hand, as responsibility changes increases, well-being may marginally decrease or increase.

Income level is moderated by NA in the well-being cognitive equation. For high NA individuals, as income increases well-being decreases. This predictor is not significant for low NA respondents. Congruency, the control variable, demonstrates that as congruency increases well-being increases for all respondents.

#### Summary for Hypothesis 6a.

NA significantly interacts with work success variables. For high NA respondents, increasing work success does not result in increasing well-being. MMRA demonstrates that for responsibility change, income level and in one case perceived success, NA does moderate these predictors. For high NA respondents these work success variables do not predict an increase in well-being. However, for three cases of perceived success and congruency, NA does not moderate the strength or direction of their beta weights. Thus, it appears that Hypothesis 6a. is partially supported.

**Hypothesis 6b: The positive relationship between Congruency and Well-Being will be greater for people who are low in Negative Affectivity than for those for whom Negative Affectivity is high.**

This hypothesis examines the potential effect the interaction between congruency and NA may have in predicting well-being. It is posited that congruency will be a more significant factor in well-being for respondents who are low NA than for those who are high NA. The moderator variable is treated as an indicator variable; low NA is coded 0 and high NA is coded 1. Table 25 presents the findings of the regression of well-being on the independent interaction between congruency and NA.

Table 25. Summary Results of the Regression of Well-Being on the Interaction Between Negative Affectivity and Congruency.<sup>^</sup>

Well-Being	Multiple R	R Square	Significance		Beta	Significance	
			F	F		T	T
<b>Congruency/Negative Affectivity</b>							
Affective	.21873	.04784	13.868	.0002	-.2187	-3.724	.0002
Cognitive	.30812	.09494	28.951	.0000	-.3081	-5.381	.0000
General Cognitive	.38647	.14936	48.462	.0000	-.3865	-6.961	.0000
General Affective	.39121	.15304	49.872	.0000	-.3912	-7.062	.0000

<sup>^</sup> Well-being was regressed on the interaction variable in separate analyses. Thus the results are for each independent interactions.

In all regression equations, congruency and NA interact significantly and the beta weights are negative. This finding indicates that for high NA respondents, as the score on the congruency measure decreases, indicating high congruency, well-being increases.

**Table 26. Summary Results of the Regression of Well-being on the Interaction Between Congruency and Negative Affectivity.**

Well-Being		R Square	Low NA Y Intercept	High NA Y Intercept	F Statistic	Significance
Affective (N=297)		.235	39.727	39.512	43.534	.000
Cognitive (N=295)		.224	15.460	15.362	15.958	.000
General Affective (N=301)		.320	2.124	2.124	44.606	.000
General Cognitive (N=309)		.295	1.950	1.950	59.373	.000
Co-Worker (N=311)		.098	10.131	10.131	23.028	.000
Mate		.112	10.798	10.611	13.907	.000

Variable\Well-Being	Affective		Cognitive		General Affective		General Cognitive		Co-Worker		Mate	
	Low NA	High NA	Low NA	High NA	Low NA	High NA	Low NA	High NA	Low NA	High NA	Low NA	High NA
Congruency			.084	-.099**	.440**	-.243***	.011	-.251***				
Perceived Success^	.393***	.393***	.354***	.354*	.363*	.363*	.404***	.404***	.307**	.307**	.262**	.262**
# Responsibility Changes^			.121*	.121*								
Income Level^			-.146**	-.146**								

Insignificant Predictors: Job Title, # Promotions.

\* p < .05 \*\* p < .01 \*\*\* p < .001 ^ control variables

Table 26 reports the findings from six MMRA's utilized to test the hypothesis. The results indicate that congruency is a significant predictor and is moderated by NA in three respondent well-being equations. Congruency increases do not result in an increase in well-being for low NA respondents while it does for high NA respondents. Congruency is a nonsignificant predictor of affective well-being and significant others' assessment of respondent well-being.

Work success variables were included in these equations as controls. In all cases, high levels of perceived success demonstrate increasing well-being. Number of responsibility changes results in an increase in cognitive well-being and as income level increases, cognitive well-being decreases.

#### Summary for Hypothesis 6b.

The findings from the tests of Hypothesis 6b. indicate that congruency is a more prominent variable in determining well-being for people who are high NA than is for people who are low NA. As this result is the opposite of what was posited, i.e., that congruency would have a greater impact on well-being for people who are low NA, Hypothesis 6b. is not supported.

**Hypothesis 6c: The relationship between Well-Being and the Work Success, Congruency interaction will be greater for people who are low in Negative Affectivity than for those for whom Negative Affectivity is high.**

This hypothesis is a synthesis of Hypotheses 6a. and 6b. NA is interacted with both work success variables and congruency. Furthermore, NA, work success and congruency are interacted simultaneously with each other in order to determine their combined effects on well-being. It is posited that the interaction between work success and congruency will be more significant for people who are low NA than for those for whom NA is high. Six MMRA's are conducted to test the hypothesis. NA, the moderator variable, functions as an indicator variable; low NA is coded 0 and high NA is coded 1. Table 27 reports the regression of well-being on these double and triple interactions.

**Table 27. Summary Results of the Regression of Well-Being on the Interactions Among Work Success, Congruency, and Negative Affectivity.**

Well-Being		R Square	Low NA Y Intercept	High NA Y Intercept	F Statistic	Significance
Affective	(N=295)	.246	32.439	32.332	17.893	.000
Cognitive	(N=292)	.226	14.808	14.808	13.225	.000
General Affective	(N=300)	.297	2.049	2.049	58.198	.000
General Cognitive	(N=305)	.318	1.979	1.979	31.902	.000
Co-Worker	(N=237)	.136	8.257	7.568	7.370	.000
Mate	(N=250)	.156	8.289	8.289	4.317	.000

Variable\Well-Being	Affective		Cognitive		General Affective		General Cognitive		Co-Worker		Mate	
	Low NA	High NA	Low NA	High NA	Low NA	High NA	Low NA	High NA	Low NA	HighNA	LowNA	High NA
Perceived Success	.544***	.544***	.356***	.356***	.389***	.389***	.399***	.399***	.469**	-.330**	.265**	.265**
Congruency							-.282**	-.282**				
Perceived Success/Congruency	-.599**	.153										
# Promotion/Congruency			-.340**	-.211							.124	-.028*
Responsibility/Congruency	.202*	-.092**	.215*	-.171	.082	-.214**	.231*	-.006*				
Income Level			-.121*	-.121*								

Insignificant Predictors: Job Title, Job Title/Congruency, Income/Congruency, # Promotions, # Responsibility Changes.

\* p < .05 \*\* p < .01 \*\*\* p < .001

As perceived success increases, well-being increases for all respondents in all well-being equations except the co-worker equation. In this regression, as perceived success increases for low NA individuals, well-being increases. For high NA individuals, as perceived success increases, their co-worker's perception of their well-being decreases.

As congruency increases, general cognitive well-being increases for all respondents. The interaction between congruency and perceived success demonstrates a decrease in affective well-being for low NA respondents. Number of promotions and congruency significantly interact and are moderated by NA. As promotions and congruency concurrently increase, cognitive well-being increases for low NA respondents and for high NA respondents in their mate's assessment of their well-being exclusively.

Number of responsibility changes and congruency interact in all respondent well-being equations and is moderated by NA. For respondents who are low NA, this interaction does not result in an increase in well-being. For high NA respondents, as responsibility changes and congruency significantly increase together, well-being increases. In the cognitive well-being equation, as income level increases, well-being decreases for both low and high NA respondents.

#### Summary for Hypothesis 6c.

Overall, perceived success, congruency and income level are predictors of well-being for high and low NA respondents with equal magnitude and direction. Perceived success and congruency interact significantly in the expected direction and result in an increase in affective well-being for low NA respondents. The interaction among number of promotions, congruency and NA also influence cognitive well-being for low NA respondents in the expected direction. Interactions among responsibility changes and congruency demonstrate increases in well-being for high NA but not for low NA respondents. This result is opposite of what is posited. Furthermore, there are more total significant interactions among work success and congruency for respondents who are low

in the personality trait than for those who are high in the trait. The findings lend some support for Hypothesis 6c.

**Hypothesis 6d: The relationships proposed in Hypotheses 6a, 6b, and 6c will not differ across different sets of work values.**

This hypothesis suggests that the work value category which a person belongs to should not have a significant effect on the findings of the hypotheses addressing the effects of NA on the relationships among work success, congruency and well-being.

Investigation into the potential influence that work value groups may assert requires conducting the regression analyses for Hypothesis 6a., Hypothesis 6b., and Hypothesis 6c. by each work value category. The results from these hypothesis tests will be presented herein. The status of Hypothesis 6d. will be provided in the summary at the conclusion of the above presentation.

**Table 28. Summary Results of the Regression of Well-Being on the Interaction Between Work Success and Negative Affectivity for Work Value Groups. (Hypothesis 6a)**

**Getting Secure**

Well-Being	R Square	Low NA Y Intercept	High NA Y Intercept	F Statistic	Significance
Affective (N=31)	.437	23.743	23.743	6.472	.002
Cognitive (N=31)	.523	9.667	9.667	9.156	.000
General Affective (N=31)	.826	.736	1.164	14.261	.000
General Cognitive (N=31)	.618	1.418	1.418	4.860	.002

Variable\Well-Being	Affective		Cognitive		General Affective		General Cognitive	
	Low NA	High NA	Low NA	High NA	Low NA	High NA	Low NA	High NA
Perceived Success	-.151	.602**	-.149	.419**	-.154	.612***	-1.005*	1.132**
# Promotions					.803**	-.116*	1.804*	-.352*
# Responsibility Changes	1.501**	-.208**	1.838***	-.041***	1.367**	-.287**	1.916*	-.141**
Congruency^					-.256*	-.256*	-.278*	-.278*

Insignificant Predictors: Job Title, Income Level.

\* p < .05 \*\* p < .01 \*\*\* p < .001 ^ control variable

**Getting Free**

Well-Being	R Square	Low NA Y Intercept	High NA Y Intercept	F Statistic	Significance
Affective (N=28)	.516	31.993	31.993	8.169	.001
Cognitive (N=28)	.502	6.608	6.068	5.549	.000
General Affective (N=28)	.604	1.017	1.017	11.719	.000
General Cognitive (N=28)	.413	.342	.342	5.406	.006

**Getting Free**

Variable\Well-Being	Affective		Cognitive		General Affective		General Cognitive	
	Low NA	High NA	Low NA	High NA	Low NA	High NA	Low NA	High NA
Perceived Success	.224	1.030***	.639**	.639**	.562***	.562***	.225	.953**
# Promotions	—	—	-.155	.311*	—	—	—	—
# Responsibility Changes	—	—	—	—	—	—	1.141***	-.109***
Income Level	1.372***	-.367***	.797*	-.114*	.679*	-.084**	—	—

Insignificant Predictors: Job Title, Congruency.

\* p < .05 \*\* p < .01 \*\*\* p < .001

**Getting High**

Well-Being	R Square	Low NA Y Intercept	High NA Y Intercept	F Statistic	Significance
Affective (N=62)	.547	31.128	30.812	32.560	.000
Cognitive (N=61)	.426	9.769	9.769	7.570	.000
General Affective (N=63)	.353	1.608	1.608	9.656	.000
General Cognitive (N=59)	.536	1.787	1.375	9.637	.000

Variable\Well-Being	Affective		Cognitive		General Affective		General Cognitive	
	Low NA	High NA	Low NA	High NA	Low NA	High NA	Low NA	High NA
Perceived Success	.594***	.594***	.431***	.431***	.390**	.390**	.366**	.366**
# Responsibility Changes	—	—	.938**	.037**	.506*	-.128**	.706*	-.017*
Income Level	—	—	-.655*	.060*	—	—	-.644*	.214**

Insignificant Predictors: Job Title, Congruency., # Promotions.

\* p < .05 \*\* p < .01 \*\*\* p < .001

**Getting Balanced**

Well-Being	R Square	Low NA Y Intercept	High NA Y Intercept	F Statistic	Significance
Affective (N=123)	.248	41.551	41.551	10.876	.000
Cognitive (N=123)	.195	15.765	15.765	12.136	.000
General Affective (N=121)	.323	2.869	2.869	7.627	.000
General Cognitive (N=119)	.279	2.208	2.208	19.309	.000

Variable\Well-Being	Affective		Cognitive		General Affective		General Cognitive	
	Low NA	High NA	Low NA	High NA	Low NA	High NA	Low NA	High NA
Perceived Success	.358***	.358***	.425***	.425***	.031	.412***	.419**	.419**
# Responsibility Changes	—	—	—	—	.438*	-.130*	—	—
Income Level	.345*	-.122**	.104	-.080*	.664**	-.028**	—	—
Congruency^	—	—	—	—	—	—	-.219*	-.219*

Insignificant Predictors: Job Title, # Promotions.

\* p < .05 \*\* p < .01 \*\*\* p < .001 ^ control variable

Table 28 reports the results of the MMRA's employed to test Hypothesis 6a for work value groups. General findings will be presented for each work value group and will be compared with the findings from sample analyses.

#### Getting Secure

The MMRA's for getting secure respondents demonstrate that perceived success, responsibility changes and number of promotions are moderated by NA. The findings for perceived success and promotions do not concur with the sample while the findings for responsibility changes do. Income level, while significant in total sample regressions, is not significant for getting secure respondents. Congruency demonstrates a significant relationship with well-being and is not moderated by NA. Findings generally concur with the total sample.

#### Getting Free

In two well-being equations, increasing perceived success results in increasing well-being of equal magnitude for low and high NA respondents, as is demonstrated by the sample. The other two regressions demonstrate that perceived success is moderated by NA and this finding does not concur with the sample.

Number of responsibility changes, income level and number of promotions are moderated by NA. The findings for responsibility changes are similar to the total sample's, while the findings for income level and promotions are not. Congruency is not a significant variable for getting free respondents although it is for the unsegmented sample.

#### Getting High

Perceived success is not moderated by NA. Number of responsibility changes is moderated by NA and these findings concur with the total sample. Income level is moderated by NA and congruency is not a significant variable for getting high respondents. These findings do not concur with the sample.

**Getting Balanced**

Perceived success and congruency are not moderated by NA, while number of responsibility changes is. These findings are also demonstrated by the total sample. Income level is moderated by NA however it demonstrates different findings than the unsegmented sample.

**Table 29. Summary Results of the Regression of Well-Being on the Interaction Between Congruency and Negative Affectivity for Work Value Groups. (Hypothesis 6b)**

**Getting Secure**

Well-Being	R Square	Low NA Y Intercept	High NA Y Intercept	F Statistic	Significance
Affective (N=31)	.232	22.997	22.997	8.138	.008
Cognitive (N=31)	.288	12.972	12.972	5.625	.012
General Affective (N=31)	.540	1.050	1.050	15.261	.000
General Cognitive (N=30)	.217	.824	.824	7.499	.011

Variable\Well-Being	Affective		Cognitive		General Affective		General Cognitive	
	Low NA	High NA	Low NA	High NA	Low NA	High NA	Low NA	High NA
Congruency			.302	-.045*	.126	-.267**		
Perceived Success <sup>^</sup>	.481**	.481**	.371*	.371*	.577**	.577**	.466**	.466**

Insignificant Predictors: Job Title, # Promotions, # Responsibility Changes, Income Level (these predictors are included in the equation as control variables).

\* p < .05 \*\* p < .01 \*\*\* p < .001 ^ control variable

**Getting Free**

Well-Being	R Square	Low NA Y Intercept	High NA Y Intercept	F Statistic	Significance
Affective (N=28)	.408	28.302	28.302	17.260	.000
Cognitive (N=28)	.312	10.420	10.420	11.361	.002
General Affective (N=29)	.444	.605	.605	19.967	.000
General Cognitive (N=28)	.314	.809	.809	11.449	.002

Variable\Well-Being	Affective		Cognitive		General Affective		General Cognitive	
	Low NA	High NA	Low NA	High NA	Low NA	High NA	Low NA	High NA
Perceived Success <sup>^</sup>	.639***	.639***	.559**	.559**	.666***	.666***	.560**	.560**

Insignificant Predictors: Congruency, (predictors included in the equation as control variables) Job Title, # Promotions, # Responsibility Changes, Income Level.

\* p < .05 \*\* p < .01 \*\*\* p < .001 ^ control variable

**Getting High**

Well-Being		R Square	Low NA Y Intercept	High NA Y Intercept	F Statistic	Significance
Affective (N=62)		.547	31.128	30.812	32.560	.000
Cognitive (N=61)		.316	7.455	7.455	25.367	.000
General Affective (N=63)		.428	1.689	1.689	13.227	.000
General Cognitive (N=60)		.421	1.621	1.621	19.662	.000

Variable\Well-Being	Affective		Cognitive		General Affective		General Cognitive	
	Low NA	High NA	Low NA	High NA	Low NA	High NA	Low NA	High NA
Congruency					.924***	-.042**		
Perceived Success^	.594***	.594***	.562***	.562***	.359**	.359**	.460***	.460***

Insignificant Predictors: Job Title, # Promotions, # Responsibility Changes, Income Level (these predictors are included in the equation as control variables).

\* p < .05 \*\* p < .01 \*\*\* p < .001 ^ control variable

**Getting Balanced**

Well-Being		R Square	Low NA Y Intercept	High NA Y Intercept	F Statistic	Significance
Affective (N=122)		.257	22.220	22.220	17.338	.000
Cognitive (N=125)		.161	15.209	15.209	19.467	.000
General Affective (N=122)		.257	2.220	2.220	17.338	.000
General Cognitive (N=123)		.279	2.208	2.208	19.309	.000

Variable\Well-Being	Affective		Cognitive		General Affective		General Cognitive	
	Low NA	High NA	Low NA	High NA	Low NA	High NA	Low NA	High NA
Congruency	.297*	.096*			.297*	.097*	-.219*	-.219*
Perceived Success^	.357***	.357***	.408***	.408***	.400***	.400***	.419***	.419***

Insignificant Predictors: Job Title, # Promotions, # Responsibility Changes, Income Level (these predictors are included in the equation as control variables).

\* p < .05 \*\* p < .01 \*\*\* p < .001 ^ control variable

Table 29 reports the findings from the MMRA that test Hypothesis 6b. for work value groups. General results will be presented individually for work value groups and will be compared to sample findings.

#### Getting Secure

Congruency is moderated by NA. Perceived success is the only control variable which results in an increase in well-being for getting secure respondents. These findings are also demonstrated by the sample.

#### Getting Free

Congruency does not demonstrate a relationship with well-being for getting free respondents. Perceived success, a control variable, exclusively demonstrates an increase in well-being for all respondents. This result concurs with the sample.

#### Getting High

Congruency is moderated by NA. Perceived success increases result in well-being increases of equal magnitude for getting high respondents. These findings generally concur with the sample.

#### Getting Balanced

Congruency is moderated by NA yet the findings do not concur with the total sample. As is demonstrated by the sample, increases in perceived success yields increases in cognitive well-being for getting balanced respondents.

Table 30. Summary Results of the Regression of Well-Being on the Interaction Among Work Success, Congruency and Negative Affectivity for Work Value Groups (Hypothesis 6c)

**Getting Secure**

Well-Being	R Square	Low NA Y Intercept	High NA Y Intercept	F Statistic	Significance
Affective (N=32)	.232	22.998	22.998	8.138	.008
Cognitive (N=30)	.808	-16.134	-14.198	5.662	.000
General Affective (N=30)	.656	-.399	-.399	8.794	.000
General Cognitive (N=30)	.503	1.027	1.027	6.094	.001

Variable\Well-Being	Affective		Cognitive		General Affective		General Cognitive	
	Low NA	High NA	Low NA	High NA	Low NA	High NA	Low NA	High NA
Perceived Success	.481**	.481**	1.865***	-.361*	.928***	.928***	.632***	.632***
Congruency	—	—	.635	1.196*	.528	.456*	—	—
Perceived Success/Congruency	—	—	-1.427**	.272	-.989**	.528	—	—
# Promotions/Congruency	—	—	-.738**	-.498	—	—	—	—
Income Level	—	—	-1.333**	.344**	—	—	-.571**	-.015*
Income Level/Congruency	—	—	2.126**	-.212*	—	—	—	—
Responsibility/Congruency	—	—	1.586**	-.122**	.849*	-.461*	.440	-.022*

Insignificant Predictors: Job Title, Job Title/Congruency, # Promotions, Income Level, # Responsibility Changes.

\* p < .05 \*\* p < .01 \*\*\* p < .001

**Getting Free**

Well-Being	R Square	Low NA Y Intercept	High NA Y Intercept	F Statistic	Significance
Affective (N=30)	.610	24.623	24.623	8.604	.000
Cognitive (N=29)	.705	1.079	1.079	5.384	.001
General Affective (N=29)	.772	-1.322	-1.322	9.202	.000
General Cognitive (N=28)	.393	.809	.809	11.449	.002

**Getting Free**

Variable\Well-Being	Affective		Cognitive		General Affective		General Cognitive	
	Low NA	High NA	Low NA	High NA	Low NA	High NA	Low NA	High NA
Perceived Success	.673*	.673*	.835**	.835**	.646**	.646*	.560*	.560*
Perceived Success/Congruency	.198	.645*	-.996**	.455*	-.141	.815**	—	—
# Promotions/Congruency	—	—	1.266**	.206	.464*	.264*	—	—
Income Level/Congruency	.383*	-.415*	1.688**	-.249*	1.584**	-.150*	—	—
# Responsibility Changes	—	—	.529*	.529*	.563*	.563*	—	—
Responsibility/Congruency	—	—	-1.317**	.357	-1.215**	.025	—	—

Insignificant Predictors: Job Title, Congruency, Job Title/Congruency, # Promtions, Income Level.

\* p < .05 \*\* p < .01

**Getting High**

Well-Being	R Square	Low NA Y Intercept	High NA Y Intercept	F Statistic	Significance
Affective (N=63)	.608	31.212	30.458	27.412	.000
Cognitive (N=63)	.315	7.454	7.454	25.367	.000
General Affective (N=60)	.518	.866	.866	10.970	.000
General Cognitive (N=60)	.564	1.235	1.235	13.207	.000

Variable\Well-Being	Affective		Cognitive		General Affective		General Cognitive	
	Low NA	High NA	Low NA	High NA	Low NA	High NA	Low NA	High NA
Perceived Success	.592***	.592***	.562***	.562***	.490***	.071***	.485*	.485*
Congruency	—	—	—	—	.649**	.649**	.240*	.240*
Perceived Success/Congruency	—	—	-.996**	.455*	-1.642***	1.072**	—	—
# Promotions/Congruency	—	—	—	—	-.436*	-.276	—	—
Income Level	.005	.587**	—	—	.066	.428**	.081	.481*
Responsibility/Congruency	—	—	—	—	—	—	.132	-.268**

Insignificant Predictors: Job Title, Job Title/Congruency, # Promtions, Income Level/Congruency, # Responsibility Changes.

\* p < .05 \*\* p < .01 \*\*\* p < .001

**Getting Balanced**

Well-Being		R Square	Low NA Y Intercept	High NA Y Intercept	F Statistic	Significance
Affective (N=122)		.212	40.886	40.886	13.492	.000
Cognitive (N=125)		.175	15.209	15.209	19.467	.000
General Affective (N=120)		.257	2.087	2.087	17.294	.000
General Cognitive (N=119)		.271	2.103	2.103	18.632	.000

Variable\Well-Being	Affective		Cognitive		General Affective		General Cognitive	
	Low NA	High NA	Low NA	High NA	Low NA	High NA	Low NA	High NA
Perceived Success	.392***	.392***	.402***	.402***	.413***	.413***	.440***	.440***
# Promotions/Congruency	—	—	—	—	—	—	-.196*	-.018
Income Level/Congruency	-.029	-.183*	—	—	.655	-.195*	—	—

Insignificant Predictors: Job Title, Congruency, Job Title/Congruency, Perceived Success/Congruency, # Promotions, Income Level, # Responsibility Changes, Responsibility Change/Congruency.

\* p < .05 \*\* p < .01 \*\*\* p < .001

Table 30 reports the findings of the MMRA that were conducted for each work value group to test Hypothesis 6c. General results for each work value group are presented and compared to sample findings.

#### Getting Secure Respondents

Perceived success is moderated by NA in the cognitive well-being equation only. In the other well-being equations, NA moderates perceived success and this finding does not concur with the total sample. In agreement with sample findings, perceived success/congruency, promotions/congruency and responsibility changes/congruency significantly interact and are moderated by NA. Income level and income level/congruency are moderated by NA and their findings do not agree with the total sample.

#### Getting Free Respondents

Perceived success is not moderated by NA, however perceived success/congruency is moderated by NA. These findings concur with the total sample.

Promotions/congruency, income level/congruency, responsibility changes and responsibility changes/congruency are all moderated by NA and their findings do not concur with the total sample's.

#### Getting High Respondents

Perceived success is not moderated by NA in three well-being equations and is moderated by NA in one well-being equation. Congruency is not moderated by NA, however the interaction between congruency and perceived success is. Promotions/congruency and responsibility changes/congruency are also moderated by NA. The findings for these variables generally concur with the total sample. Income level is not moderated by NA and the findings do not concur with the unsegmented sample.

#### Getting Balanced Respondents

In agreement with total sample findings, perceived success is not moderated by NA. Promotions/congruency is moderated by NA and the findings partially concur with

the total sample. Income level/congruency is also moderated by NA and this finding does not concur with the unsegmented sample.

Summary for Hypothesis 6d.

Tables 31, 32, and 33 assess whether the work value group analyses for Hypothesis 6a., 6b. and 6c. concur with total sample findings. Results that are similar between the sample and work value groups are indicated by the word "same". Results between work value groups and the sample that do not concur are indicated by the word "different". If a predictor is nonsignificant for a work value group but is significant for the sample, this is indicated by "ns".

Table 31. Comparative Results for the Sample and Work Value Groups of the Tests for the Regression of Well-Being on the Interaction Between Work Success and Negative Affectivity-Hypothesis 6a.

Significant Sample Findings	Work Value Groups			
	Secure	Free	High	Balanced
Perceived Success: equal increase in well-being for low & high NA respondents.	different <sup>a</sup>	different <sup>b</sup>	same	same
# Promotions: nonsignificant	different <sup>c</sup>	different <sup>d</sup>	same	same
# Responsibility Change: well-being increase for low NA, marginal increase or slight decrease for high NA.	same <sup>e</sup>	same <sup>e</sup>	same	different <sup>c</sup>
Income Level: decrease in well-being for high NA.	ns	different <sup>c</sup>	different <sup>f</sup>	different <sup>g</sup>
Congruency <sup>^</sup> : equal increase in well-being for low & high NA.	same	ns	ns	same

<sup>^</sup> control variable

a nonsignificant or increase in well-being for low NA, greater increase in well-being for high NA.

b nonsignificant or equal increase in well-being for low NA, increase in well-being for high NA.

c increase in well-being for low NA, decrease in well-being for high NA.

d nonsignificant for low NA, increase in well-being for high NA.

e decrease for high NA exclusively.

f decrease in well-being for low NA, increase in well-being for high NA.

g equal decrease in well-being.

Table 31 demonstrates that the results for Hypothesis 6a vary among work value groups and are different than the findings for the unstratified sample. In reference to this test, Hypothesis 6d. is not supported.

Table 32. Comparative Results for the Sample and Work Value Groups of the Tests for the Regression of Well-Being on the Interaction Between Congruency and Negative Affectivity-Hypothesis 6b.

Significant Sample Findings	Work Value Groups			
	Secure	Free	High	Balanced
Congruency: increase in well-being for high NA, decrease for low NA.	same	ns	same	different <sup>a</sup>
Perceived Success <sup>^</sup> : equal increase in well-being for low & high NA.	same	same	same	same
# Responsibility Changes <sup>^</sup> : equal increase in well-being for low & high NA.	ns	ns	ns	ns
Income Level <sup>^</sup> : equal decrease in well-being for low & high NA.	ns	ns	ns	ns

<sup>^</sup> control variables  
<sup>a</sup> equal increase in well-being, and greater decrease in well-being for low NA than for high NA.

Table 32. demonstrates that the results of the test of Hypothesis 6b indicate that congruency has the same relationship with well-being for the getting secure and getting high work value groups as it does with the total sample. While responsibility changes and income level are significant control variables in sample analysis, they are nonsignificant in the value group analyses. These findings offer partial support for Hypothesis 6d.

Table 33. Comparative Results for the Sample and Work Value Groups of the Tests for the Regression of Well-Being on the Interaction Among Work Success, Congruency and Negative Affectivity-Hypothesis 6c.

Significant Sample Findings	Work Value Groups			
	Secure	Free	High	Balanced
Perceived Success: equal well-being increase for low & high NA.	different <sup>a</sup>	same	same <sup>b</sup>	same
Congruency: equal increase in well-being for low & high NA.	different <sup>c</sup>	ns	different <sup>d</sup>	ns
Perceived Success/Congruency: increase in low NA well-being, nonsignificant for high NA.	same	different <sup>e</sup>	different <sup>e</sup>	ns
# Promotions/Congruency: increase in low NA well-being nonsignificant for high NA.	same	different <sup>e</sup>	same	same
# Responsibility Changes: nonsignificant.	same	different <sup>f</sup>	same	same
Responsibility/Congruency: increase in high NA well-being, decrease in low NA.	same	different <sup>g</sup>	same	ns
Income Level: equal increase in well-being for low & high NA.	different <sup>h</sup>	ns	different <sup>i</sup>	ns
Income Level/Congruency: nonsignificant.	different <sup>j</sup>	different <sup>j</sup>	same	different <sup>j</sup>

a in one case, increase in well-being for low NA, decrease in well-being for high NA.

b in one equation, greater increase in well-being for low NA.

c nonsignificant for low NA, decrease in well-being for high NA.

d equal decrease in well-being.

e also predicts a decrease in well-being for high NA.

f equal increase in well-being.

g increase in well-being for low NA, nonsignificant for high NA.

h decrease in well-being for low NA, increase and slight decrease in well-being for high NA.

i nonsignificant for low NA, increase in well-being for high NA.

j decrease in well-being for low NA, increase in well-being for high NA.

The results in Table 33, which test Hypothesis 6c demonstrate that findings for value groups vary among themselves and differ from the findings for the unstratified sample. The getting high set of respondents appears to be the most similar to the sample, and getting secure and getting free respondents are the most dissimilar from the sample. Comparative results for Hypotheses 6a. and 6b. also indicate that the findings for work value groups and the sample do not concur. Furthermore, the work value group MMRAs explain a far greater amount of the variance in well-being than do the total sample regressions. Thus, overall Hypothesis 6d. is not supported.

**Hypothesis 7a. The incremental change in Well-Being will be greater per unit change in Work Success for people who are high in Work Role Salience than for those for whom Work Role Salience is low controlling for Congruency.**

Hypotheses 7a.-7c. explore the effect that WRS, the importance of work in a person's life, may have on work success and congruency in predicting well-being. MMRA is utilized in testing these hypotheses. WRS, the moderator variable is treated as an indicator variable. Low WRS is coded 0 and serves as the reference group, and high WRS is coded 1. If a predictor variable is moderated by WRS, then the significant beta weights for low and high WRS respondents will differ. If a significant predictor variable is not moderated by WRS, then the beta weights for low and high WRS respondents will be equal, indicating that the variable has the same magnitude in predicting well-being for low and high WRS individuals.

Hypothesis 7a. investigates the impact of work success in predicting well-being when moderated by WRS. It is posited that work success will demonstrate more significant relationships with well-being when WRS is high than when WRS is low. Table 34 reports the findings of the regression of well-being on each of the interactions between work success and WRS independently.

Table 34. Summary Results of the Regression of Well-Being on Interactions Between  
Work Success and Work Role Salience.

**Work Role Salience/ # Promotions**

Well-Being	Multiple R	R Square	F	F Significance	Beta	T	T Significance
W.B. Affective	.08313	.00691	1.921	.1669	.0831	1.386	.1669
W.B. Cognitive	.08977	.00806	2.242	.1354	.0898	1.497	.1354
W.B. Cogn. General	.01911	.00037	.1008	.7511	.0191	.318	.7511
W.B. Affec. General	.03120	.00097	.2689	.6045	.0312	.519	.6045

**Work Role Salience/ Responsibility**

W.B. Affective	.03770	.00142	.3929	.5313	.0377	.627	.5313
W.B. Cognitive	.15392	.02369	6.698	.0102	.1539	2.588	.0102
W.B. Cogn. General	.01430	.00020	.0564	.8123	.0143	.238	.8123
W.B. Affec. General	.02909	.00085	.2337	.6292	.0291	.483	.6292

**Work Role Salience/ Income**

W.B. Affective	.16784	.02817	8.001	.0050	.1678	2.829	.0050
W.B. Cognitive	.02776	.00052	.1430	.7056	.0228	.378	.7056
W.B. Cogn. General	.14846	.02204	6.220	.0132	.1484	2.494	.0132
W.B. Affec. General	.15328	.02350	6.640	.0105	.1532	2.577	.0105

**Work Role Salience/ Perceived Success**

W.B. Affective	.49518	.24520	89.659	.0000	.4952	9.469	.0000
W.B. Cognitive	.40951	.16770	55.911	.0000	.4095	7.457	.0000
W.B. Cogn. General	.51045	.26056	97.256	.0000	.5104	9.862	.0000
W.B. Affec. General	.47466	.22530	80.270	.0000	.4747	8.959	.0000

Table 34 demonstrates that the work success variable with the most consistent significant interaction with WRS is perceived success and the beta weight is positive. With the exception of the cognitive scale, income level significantly interacts with WRS and also has a positive beta weight. Number of responsibility changes interacts significantly with WRS for the well-being cognitive measure and demonstrates a positive beta weight. These findings indicate that for high WRS respondents, as work success increases, well-being increases. Number of promotions does not interact significantly with WRS for any well-being measure.

**Table 35. Summary Results of the Regression of Well-Being on the Interaction Between Work Success and Work Role Salience.**

Well-Being		R Square	Low WRS Y Intercept	High WRS Y Intercept	F Statistic	Significance
Affective	(N=297)	.264	35.885	35.885	33.896	.000
Cognitive	(N=292)	.227	14.657	14.657	20.152	.000
General Affective	(N=303)	.271	1.943	1.943	25.924	.000
General Cognitive	(N=310)	.323	1.745	1.745	33.190	.000
Co-Worker	(N=237)	.109	9.907	9.907	27.227	.000
Mate	(N=250)	.084	10.026	10.026	20.313	.000

Variable\Well-Being	Affective		Cognitive		General Affective		General Cognitive		Co-Worker		Mate	
	L-WRS	H-WRS	L-WRS	H-WRS	L-WRS	H-WRS	L-WRS	H-WRS	L-WRS	H-WRS	L-WRS	H-WRS
Perceived Success	.453***	.453***	-.066	.471***	.432***	.432***	.465***	.465***	.330*	.330*	.289*	.289*
# Responsibility Changes	—	—	-.246*	.175*	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Income Level	-.967***	.026**	-.597*	-.629*	-.605**	.007**	-.635**	-.011**	—	—	—	—
Congruency <sup>^</sup>	—	—	-.159**	-.159**	-.163**	-.163**	-.203*	-.203*	—	—	—	—

Insignificant Predictors: Job Title, # Promotions.

\* p < .05 \*\* p < .01 \*\*\* P < .001 ^ control variable

Table 35 presents the findings from the six MMRA's computed to investigate whether WRS moderates the impact of work success in predicting well-being. In all but one equation, increases in perceived success result in equal increases in well-being for high and low WRS respondents. In the cognitive equation, perceived success is a nonsignificant predictor of well-being for low WRS respondents. Co-worker and mate equations demonstrate perceived success to be the only significant predictor of increasing well-being.

Number of responsibility changes and income level are moderated by WRS. As responsibility changes and income level increase, well-being increases for high WRS respondents. For low WRS respondents, this interaction results in decreasing well-being.

As congruency, the control variable increases, well-being increases similarly for low and high WRS respondents.

#### Summary for Hypothesis 7a.

While perceived success is not moderated by WRS, responsibility changes and income level are. Their results are in the posited direction, i.e., these variables demonstrate an increase in well-being for high WRS respondents, but not for low WRS respondents. Thus, this hypothesis is partially supported.

**Hypothesis 7b. The incremental change in Well-Being will be greater per unit change in Congruency for people who are high in Work Role Salience than for those for whom Work Role Salience is low controlling for Congruency.**

This hypothesis investigates the effect of WRS on congruency in predicting well-being. It is posited that congruency will have a more significant effect on well-being for people who are high WRS than it will for people who are low WRS. MMRA is used to test the hypothesis. WRS is the moderator variable and functions as an indicator variable; low WRS is coded 0, high WRS is coded 1. Table 36 presents the results of the regression of well-being on the interaction between congruency and WRS, excluding the control variables.

Table 36. Summary Results of the Regression of Well-Being on the Interaction Between Work Role Salience and Congruency.

Well-Being	Multiple R	R Square	F	F Significance	Beta	T	T Significance
<b>Congruency/Work Role Salience</b>							
Affective	.14634	.02142	6.040	.0146	-.1463	-2.458	.0146
Cognitive	.21681	.04700	13.613	.0003	-.2168	-3.690	.0003
General Cognitive	.31209	.09740	29.783	.0000	-.3121	-5.457	.0000
General Affective	.25203	.06352	18.721	.0000	-.2520	-4.327	.0000

It is apparent from Table 36 that congruency and WRS significantly interact with a negative beta weight. This finding suggests that for high WRS respondents, as congruency increases, well-being increases.

**Table 37. Summary Results of the Regression of Well-Being on the Interaction Between Congruency and Work Role Salience.**

Well-Being		R Square	Low WRS Y Intercept	High WRS Y Intercept	F Statistic	Significance
Affective	(N=295)	.228	36.683	36.683	27.417	.000
Cognitive	(N=292)	.203	14.564	14.564	14.044	.000
General Affective	(N=300)	.242	1.974	1.974	43.927	.000
General Cognitive	(N=305)	.298	1.773	1.773	59.341	.000
Co-Worker	(N=237)	.109	10.164	10.164	22.227	.000
Mate	(N=250)	.084	10.026	10.026	20.313	.000

Variable\Well-Being	Affective		Cognitive		General Affective		General Cognitive		Co-Worker		Mate	
	L-WRS	H-WRS	L-WRS	H-WRS	L-WRS	H-WRS	L-WRS	H-WRS	L-WRS	H-WRS	L-WRS	H-WRS
Congruency	-.876**	-.065*	-.887**	-.140*	-.172**	-.172**	-.218***	-.218***				
Perceived Success^	.443***	.443***	.380***	.380***	.426***	.426***	.456***	.456***	.330*	.330*	.289*	.289*
# Responsibility Changes^			.152*	.152*								
Income Level^			-.140*	-.140*								

Insignificant Predictors: Job Title, # Promotions.

\* p < .05 \*\* p < .01 \*\*\* p < .001 ^ control variables

Table 37 reports the findings from the six MMRA's utilized to determine whether congruency is moderated by WRS in predicting well-being. In two well-being equations congruency predicts equal increases in well-being for low and high WRS respondents. In two other equations congruency is moderated by WRS. Congruency results in a greater increase in well-being for low WRS respondents than for high WRS respondents. Congruency is not a significant predictor in the co-worker and mate equations.

Work success control variables are also significant in this analysis. Increases in perceived success and number of responsibility changes demonstrate increases in well-being. Increasing income demonstrates a decrease in well-being.

#### Summary for Hypothesis 7b.

It is posited that congruency will be moderated by WRS such that it predicts a greater increase in well-being for high WRS respondents than for low WRS respondents. This was not demonstrated by the findings, thus Hypothesis 7b. is not supported.

**Hypothesis 7c: The incremental change in Well-Being will be greater per unit change in the interaction between Work Success and Congruency for people who are high in Work Role Salience than for those for whom Work Role Salience is low.**

This hypothesis is a synthesis of Hypotheses 7a. and 7b. It posits that the interaction between work success and congruency will be more significant for people who are high WRS than for those for whom WRS is low. WRS, the moderator variable, functions as an indicator variable; low WRS is coded 0 and high WRS is coded 1. WRS interacts with work success, congruency and work success/congruency in all six MMRA. Table 38 presents the regression of well-being on the interaction among work success, congruency, and WRS.

**Table 38. Summary Results of the Regression of Well-Being on the Interaction Among Work Success, Congruency, and Work Role Salience.**

Well-Being		R Square	Low WRS Y Intercept	High WRS Y Intercept	F Statistic	Significance
Affective	(N=301)	.226	37.022	37.022	26.629	.000
Cognitive	(N=289)	.228	13.620	14.331	9.946	.000
General Affective	(N=297)	.249	1.944	1.944	45.477	.000
General Cognitive	(N=299)	.298	1.773	1.773	58.341	.000
Co-Worker	(N=249)	.148	10.285	10.285	7.563	.000
Mate	(N=250)	.111	8.378	8.378	6.848	.000

Variable\Well-Being	Affective		Cognitive		General Affective		General Cognitive		Co-Worker		Mate	
	L-WRS	H-WRS	L-WRS	H-WRS	L-WRS	H-WRS	L-WRS	H-WRS	L-WRS	H-WRS	L-WRS	H-WRS
Perceived Success	.422***	.422***	.416***	.416***	.432***	.432***	.456***	.456***	.297**	.297**	.280**	.280**
Congruency							-.218**	-.218**			.391*	.391*
Perceived Success/Congruency	-.080	-.354*	-.015	-.700**					.091	-.450**		
# Promotion/Congruency	-.047	-.560**	-.154*	-.166	-.189***	-.037			.070	-.358*	.490*	.028
# Responsibility Changes			.171*	-.454*								
# Responsibility/Congruency			-.023	.532*								
Income Level			-.123*	-.123*					.001	.394*		
Income Level/Congruency									.091	-.399*		

Insignificant Predictors: Job Title, # Promotions.

\* p < .05 \*\* p < .01 \*\*\* p < .001

In all well-being equations, an increase in perceived success results in an increase in well-being for low and high WRS respondents. While congruency also predicts an equal increase in general cognitive well-being for respondents, the mate well-being equation predicts an equal decrease in respondent's well-being.

When perceived success and congruency, and number of promotions and congruency interact they are moderated by WRS. These interactions result in a greater increase in well-being for high WRS respondents than for low WRS respondents.

When the number of responsibility changes increase, cognitive well-being increases for low WRS respondents and decreases for high WRS respondents. When responsibility changes and congruency interact, high WRS respondent cognitive well-being decreases.

While income level demonstrates a decrease in cognitive well-being of equal strength for low and high WRS individuals, it results in an increase in well-being in the co-worker equation. When income level and congruency interact, an increase in co-worker's perception of respondent well-being for high WRS respondents exclusively is apparent.

#### Summary for Hypothesis 7c.

Results of the MMRA for Hypothesis 7c. indicate that the interactions between perceived success and congruency, number of promotions and congruency and income level and congruency are all in the posited direction, i.e., well-being increases to a greater extent for high WRS respondents than for low WRS respondents. While the finding for the interaction between responsibility changes and congruency is not in the expected direction, the interaction is significant in one well-being equation only. Thus, the hypothesis is generally supported.

**Hypothesis 7d: The relationship proposed in Hypotheses 7a,7b, and 7c will not differ across different sets of work values.**

This hypothesis investigates whether work value groups will demonstrate similar results as the sample in hypothesis testing regarding the regression of well-being on work success, congruency and their interaction with the WRS moderator. Each of the analyses conducted to test Hypotheses 7a., 7b., and 7c. are also conducted for each work value group. Findings for the value sets of respondents will be compared with those of the sample.

Table 39 reports the results of the regression of well-being on the interaction between work success and WRS for value groups, to test Hypothesis 7a. General findings are reported for each work group individually.

**Table 39. Summary Results of the Regression of Well-Being on the Interaction between Work Success and Work Role Salience for Work Value Groups. (Hypothesis 7a)**

**Getting Secure**

Well-Being	R Square	Low WRS Y Intercept	High WRS Y Intercept	F Statistic	Significance
Affective (N=31)	.267	25.355	25.355	9.847	.004
Cognitive (N=31)	.248	9.621	9.621	8.916	.006
General Affective (N=31)	.489	1.006	1.006	12.426	.000
General Cognitive (N=30)	.216	1.117	1.117	7.431	.011

Variable\Well-Being	Affective		Cognitive		General Affective		General Cognitive	
	L-WRS	H-WRS	L-WRS	H-WRS	L-WRS	H-WRS	L-WRS	H-WRS
Perceived Success	.097	.614**	-.160	.338*	.593***	.593***	.254	.719**
Congruency^	—	—	—	—	-.319*	-.319*	—	—

Insignificant Predictors: Job Title, # Promotions, # Responsibility Changes, Income Level.

\* p < .05 \*\* p < .01 \*\*\* p < .001 ^ control variable

**Getting Free**

Well-Being	R Square	Low WRS Y Intercept	High WRS Y Intercept	F Statistic	Significance
Affective (N=29)	.408	28.303	28.303	17.260	.000
Cognitive (N=29)	.312	10.420	10.420	11.361	.002
General Affective (N=28)	.444	.605	.650	19.967	.000
General Cognitive (N=28)	.263	1.246	1.246	8.901	.006

**Getting Free**

Variable\Well-Being	Affective		Cognitive		General Affective		General Cognitive	
	L-WRS	H-WRS	L-WRS	H-WRS	L-WRS	H-WRS	L-WRS	H-WRS
Perceived Success	.693***	.693***	.559**	.559**	.666***	.666***	.586	1.098**

Insignificant Predictors: Job Title, # Promotions, # Responsibility Changes, Income Level, Congruency (control variable).

\* p < .05 \*\* p < .01 \*\*\* p < .001

**Getting High**

Well-Being	R Square	Low WRS Y Intercept	High WRS Y Intercept	F Statistic	Significance
Affective (N=62)	.519	22.081	22.081	29.088	.000
Cognitive (N=61)	.383	6.483	6.218	16.766	.000
General Affective (N=63)	.238	.966	.966	17.231	.000
General Cognitive (N=60)	.413	.485	.258	12.410	.000

Variable\Well-Being	Affective		Cognitive		General Affective		General Cognitive	
	L-WRS	H-WRS	L-WRS	H-WRS	L-WRS	H-WRS	L-WRS	H-WRS
Perceived Success	.662***	.662***	.616***	.616***	.488**	.488**	.585***	.585***
Income Level	.256*	.256*					.239*	.239*

Insignificant Predictors: Job Title, # Promotions, # Responsibility Changes, Congruency (control variable).

\* p < .05 \*\* p < .01 \*\*\* p < .001

**Getting Balanced**

Well-Being	R Square	Low WRS Y Intercept	High WRS Y Intercept	F Statistic	Significance
Affective (N=123)	.239	38.776	38.776	31.974	.000
Cognitive (N=123)	.165	16.724	16.724	6.592	.000
General Affective (N=126)	.218	1.933	1.933	28.424	.000
General Cognitive (N=120)	.326	2.005	2.995	24.467	.000

Variable\Well-Being	Affective		Cognitive		General Affective		General Cognitive	
	L-WRS	H-WRS	L-WRS	H-WRS	L-WRS	H-WRS	L-WRS	H-WRS
Perceived Success	.162	.605***	.345***	.345***	.467***	.467***	.478***	.478***
# Responsibility Changes	—	—	-.650*	-.006*	—	—	—	—
Congruency^	—	—	—	—	—	—	-.202*	-.202*

Insignificant Predictors: Job Title, # Promotions, Income Level.

\* p < .05 \*\* p < .01 p < .001 ^ control variable

### Getting Secure Respondents

In three well-being equations, perceived success is moderated by WRS. This is the only significant predictor in this analysis and this finding does not concur with the total sample. Congruency, the control variable, is not moderated by WRS. This finding is in agreement with the total sample.

### Getting Free

Perceived success is the exclusive work success variable that predicts well-being for getting free individuals. In one equation it is moderated by WRS while in the other equations it is not. This finding partially concurs with the unsegmented sample.

### Getting High

As is demonstrated by the sample, perceived success is not moderated by WRS. Income level is not moderated by WRS for the segmented and unsegmented samples, however these findings do not concur.

### Getting Balanced

Perceived success is moderated by WRS in one well-being equation. In the other three well-being equations perceived success is not moderated by WRS and this finding is in agreement with the total sample. Number of responsibility changes is moderated by WRS and the findings concur with the total sample's. As is demonstrated by the sample, congruency, the control variable, is not moderated by WRS.

**Table 40. Summary Results of the Regression of Well-Being on the Interaction Between Congruency and Work Role Salience for Work Value Groups (Hypothesis 7b)**

**Getting Secure**

Well-Being	R Square	Low WRS Y Intercept	High WRS Y Intercept	F Statistic	Significance
Affective (N=31)	.232	22.998	22.998	8.138	.008
Cognitive (N=31)	.169	9.816	9.816	5.497	.026
General Affective (N=31)	.489	1.006	1.006	12.426	.000
General Cognitive (N=29)	.217	.824	.824	7.499	.010

Variable\Well-Being	Affective		Cognitive		General Affective		General Cognitive	
	L-WRS	H-WRS	L-WRS	H-WRS	L-WRS	H-WRS	L-WRS	H-WRS
Congruency					-.320*	-.320*		
Perceived Success <sup>^</sup>	.481***	.481***	.411*	.411*	.593***	.593***	.466**	.466**

Insignificant Predictors: Job Title, # Promotions, Income Level, # Responsibility Changes (these variables were included in the equation as controls).

\* p < .05 \*\* p < .01 \*\*\* p < .001 ^ control variable

**Getting Free**

Well-Being	R Square	Low WRS Y Intercept	High WRS Y Intercept	F Statistic	Significance
Affective (N=29)	.408	28.302	28.302	17.260	.000
Cognitive (N=29)	.312	10.420	10.420	11.361	.002
General Affective (N=29)	.444	.605	.605	19.067	.000
General Cognitive (N=28)	.314	.809	.809	11.449	.002

**Getting Free**

Variable\Well-Being	Affective		Cognitive		General Affective		General Cognitive	
	L-WRS	H-WRS	L-WRS	H-WRS	L-WRS	H-WRS	L-WRS	H-WRS
Perceived Success^	.639***	.639***	.559**	.559**	.666***	.666***	.560**	.560**

Insignificant Predictors: Congruency; (control variables) Job Title, # Promotions, Income Level, # Responsibility Changes.

\* p < .05 \*\* p < .01 \*\*\* p < .001 ^ control variable

**Getting High**

Well-Being	R Square	Low WRS Y Intercept	High WRS Y Intercept	F Statistic	Significance
Affective (N=63)	.517	22.080	22.080	29.088	.000
Cognitive (N=62)	.383	6.483	6.218	16.766	.000
General Affective (N=63)	.238	.965	.965	17.230	.000
General Cognitive (N=62)	.413	.485	.258	12.410	.000

Variable\Well-Being	Affective		Cognitive		General Affective		General Cognitive	
	L-WRS	H-WRS	L-WRS	H-WRS	L-WRS	H-WRS	L-WRS	H-WRS
Perceived Success^	.662***	.662***	.616***	.616***	.488***	.488***	.585***	.585***
Income Level^	.256**	.256**	—	—	—	—	.239*	.239*

Insignificant Predictors: Congruency; (control variables) Job Title, # Promotions, # Responsibility Changes.

\* p < .05 \*\* p < .01 \*\*\* p < .001 ^ control variables

**Getting Balanced**

Well-Being		R Square	Low WRS Y Intercept	High WRS Y Intercept	F Statistic	Significance
Affective	(N=125)	.212	37.760	37.760	27.474	.000
Cognitive	(N=125)	.127	16.581	16.581	14.813	.000
General Affective	(N=126)	.218	1.933	1.933	28.424	.000
General Cognitive	(N=120)	.330	2.032	2.032	24.823	.000

Variable\Well-Being	Affective		Cognitive		General Affective		General Cognitive	
	L-WRS	H-WRS	L-WRS	H-WRS	L-WRS	H-WRS	L-WRS	H-WRS
Congruency							.081	-.130*
Perceived Success^	.461***	.461***	.356***	.356***	.467***	.467***	.474***	.474***

Insignificant Predictors: Job Title, # Promotions, # Responsibility Changes, Income Level (these variables were included in the equation as controls).

\* p < .05 \*\* p < .01 \*\*\* p < .001 ^ control variable

Table 40 reports the results of the Tests for Hypothesis 7b. for work value groups. It is posited that the interaction between congruency and WRS will be more significant in predicting an increase in well-being for respondents who are high in WRS than for those for whom WRS is low. General findings will be presented for work value groups and will be compared to the findings for the unsegmented sample.

#### Getting Secure Respondents

Congruency is not moderated by NA and this finding does not concur with the total sample. Perceived success, a control variable, is not moderated by WRS and is in agreement with the total sample.

#### Getting Free

Congruency is not a significant variable for getting free respondents and this finding does not agree with the unsegmented sample. Perceived success, a control variable, is not moderated by WRS and this finding concurs with the total sample.

#### Getting High

Congruency is not a significant variable and this finding does not concur with the sample. The control variables-perceived success and income- are not moderated by WRS.

#### Getting Balanced

Congruency is not moderated by WRS and this finding does not concur with the total sample. Perceived success is not moderated by WRS and concurs with total sample findings.

**Table 41. Summary Results of the Regression of Well-Being on the Interaction Among Work Success, Congruency, And Work Role Salience for Work Value Groups (Hypothesis 7c)**

**Getting Secure**

Well-Being		R Square	Low WRS Y Intercept	High WRS Y Intercept	F Statistic	Significance
Affective (N=32)		.232	22.998	22.998	8.138	.008
Cognitive (N=32)		.169	9.816	9.816	5.497	.026
General Affective (N=32)		.521	.521	.521	14.177	.000
General Cognitive (N=30)		.217	.824	.824	7.499	.011

Variable/Well-Being	Affective		Cognitive		General Affective		General Cognitive	
	L-WRS	H-WRS	L-WRS	H-WRS	L-WRS	H-WRS	L-WRS	H-WRS
Perceived Success	.481**	.481**	.411*	.411*	.718***	.718***	.466*	.466*
Perceived Success/Congruency	—	—	—	—	-.379*	.039	—	—

Insignificant Predictors: Job Title, Congruency, Job Title/Congruency, # Promotions, # Promotions/Congruency, # Responsibility Changes, Responsibility Changes/Congruency, Income Level, Income Level/Congruency.

\* p < .05 \*\* p < .01 \*\*\* p < .001

**Getting Free**

Well-Being		R Square	Low WRS Y Intercept	High WRS Y Intercept	F Statistic	Significance
Affective (N=28)		.657	23.377	23.377	14.708	.000
Cognitive (N=28)		.553	5.487	5.487	9.501	.000
General Affective (N=28)		.684	-.233	-.233	7.234	.000
General Cognitive (N=29)		.470	1.011	1.011	6.799	.001

**Getting Free**

Variable\Well-Being	Affective		Cognitive		General Affective		General Cognitive	
	L-WRS	H-WRS	L-WRS	H-WRS	L-WRS	H-WRS	L-WRS	H-WRS
Perceived Success	.643***	.643***	.769***	.769***	.779***	.779***	.495**	.495**
Perceived Success/Congruency	.440*	.178	—	—	—	—	—	—
# Promotions/Congruency	-.118	-.587**	.574**	-.073**	-.005	-.469**	-.320	-.873**
Income Level	—	—	—	—	-.417*	.198*	-.081	.412*
Income Level/Congruency	—	—	—	—	1.376**	.936	—	—
# Responsibility Changes	—	—	—	—	.380*	.008*	—	—
Responsibility /Congruency	—	—	—	—	-.858*	.111	—	—

Insignificant Predictors: Job Title, Congruency, Job Title/Congruency, # Promotions.

\* p < .05 \*\* p < .01 \*\*\* p < .001

**Getting High**

Well-Being	R Square	Low WRS Y Intercept	High WRS Y Intercept	F Statistic	Significance
Affective (N=60)	.614	9.705	9.189	16.218	.000
Cognitive (N=60)	.451	6.754	6.754	22.173	.000
General Affective (N=59)	.459	1.077	1.077	7.066	.000
General Cognitive (N=62)	.423	.481	.481	12.946	.000

Variable\Well-Being	Affective		Cognitive		General Affective		General Cognitive	
	L-WRS	H-WRS	L-WRS	H-WRS	L-WRS	H-WRS	L-WRS	H-WRS
Perceived Success	.935**	1.350**	.606**	.606**	.483***	1.200***	.585***	.585***
Congruency	1.283**	1.283**	—	—	—	—	—	—
Perceived Success/Congruency	-1.292**	-.983**	—	—	—	—	—	—
# Promotions/Congruency	—	—	—	—	-.669**	-.139	—	—
Income Level	.228*	.228*	—	—	—	—	.245*	.245*
Income Level/Congruency	—	—	—	—	.528**	-.091	—	—
# Responsibility Changes	-.017	-.275*	—	—	-.167	-1.035**	-.006	-.242*
Responsibility /Congruency	—	—	.175	-.370*	.340*	-.194	—	—

Insignificant Predictors: Job Title, Job Title/Congruency, # Promotions.

\* p < .05 \*\* p < .01 \*\*\* p < .001

**Getting Balanced**

Well-Being	R Square	Low WRS Y Intercept	High WRS Y Intercept	F Statistic	Significance
Affective (N=125)	.212	37.759	37.759	27.474	.000
Cognitive (N=120)	.274	18.484	18.484	5.164	.000
General Affective (N=128)	.230	3.700	3.700	15.056	.000
General Cognitive (N=121)	.322	1.925	1.925	24.004	.000

Variable\Well-Being	Affective		Cognitive		General Affective		General Cognitive	
	L-WRS	H-WRS	L-WRS	H-WRS	L-WRS	H-WRS	L-WRS	H-WRS
Perceived Success	.461***	.461***	.149	1.789**	—	—	.489*	.882**
Congruency	—	—	—	—	-1.191**	-1.191**	—	—
Perceived Success/Congruency	—	—	.530**	-.832**	1.017**	.095	—	—
# Promotions/Congruency	—	—	—	—	—	—	-.188*	.039
Income Level	.228*	.228*	—	—	—	—	.245*	.245*
Income Level/Congruency	—	—	—	—	.528**	-.091	—	—
# Responsibility Changes	—	—	.472*	-1.341**	—	—	—	—
Responsibility /Congruency	—	—	-.949**	.853**	—	—	—	—

Insignificant Predictors: Job Title, Job Title/Congruency, # Promotions.

\* p < .05 \*\* p < .01

Table 41 presents the results of the regression of well-being on the interaction among work success, congruency and WRS. General findings are reported individually for work value groups and are compared with sample results.

#### Getting Secure

Perceived success is not moderated by WRS. Perceived success/congruency is moderated by WRS. Findings for perceived success concur with the sample while the finding for the interaction between perceived success and congruency does not.

#### Getting Free

As is demonstrated by the total sample, perceived success is not moderated by WRS. Congruency is a nonsignificant predictor of well-being. Perceived success/congruency is moderated by WRS. This finding does not agree with sample results. In concurrence with sample findings, number of promotions and congruency significantly interact and is moderated by WRS. Number of responsibility changes and responsibility changes/congruency are moderated by WRS. These findings do not concur with the unsegmented sample.

Income level is moderated by WRS in the affective well-being equation. While this finding supports the hypothesis, it does not concur with the total sample. Income level/congruency is moderated by WRS and this finding does not agree with the sample.

#### Getting High

In two well-being equations, perceived success is not moderated by WRS while in the other two well-being equations, perceived success is moderated by WRS. While this finding supports the hypothesis, it does not concur with total sample results.

While congruency is not moderated by WRS, the interaction between perceived success and congruency, promotions and congruency, responsibility changes and congruency and income level and congruency are. These findings do not concur with total sample findings.

### Getting Balanced

Perceived success is moderated by WRS in two well-being equations. In one other well-being equations, perceived success is not moderated by WRS. This result partially concurs with the total sample.

In agreement with sample findings, congruency is not moderated by WRS. The interaction between perceived success and congruency is moderated by WRS. For high WRS respondents, an increase in cognitive well-being results while for low WRS respondents a decrease results. This finding generally concurs with the sample.

Promotions/congruency and income level/ congruency are moderated by WRS, income level is not moderated by WRS. These findings are not demonstrated by the sample. Responsibility changes and responsibility changes/congruency are moderated by WRS and their findings concur with the unsegmented sample.

### Summary for Hypothesis 7d.

Tables 42, 43 and 44 present the comparative findings between the sample and work value groups for tests of Hypotheses 7a., 7b. and 7c. When findings for the sample and work value groups concur, this is indicated by the word "same". When the findings for these two sets of analyses differ, it is indicated by the word "different". If findings for the sample are nonsignificant for value groups, then this is indicated by "ns".

Table 42. Comparative Results for the Sample and Work Value Groups of the Regression of Well-Being on the Interaction Between Work Success and Work Role Salience-Hypothesis 7a.

Significant Sample Findings	Work Value Groups			
	Secure	Free	High	Balanced
Perceived Success: equal increase in well-being for low & high WRS.	different <sup>a</sup>	same	same	same
# Responsibility Change: equal increase in high and low WRS well-being.	ns	ns	ns	different <sup>b</sup>
Income Level: decrease in well-being for low WRS, slight increase or decrease for high WRS.	ns	ns	different <sup>c</sup>	ns
Congruency <sup>^</sup> : equal increase in well-being for low & high WRS	same	ns	ns	same

<sup>a</sup> control variable  
<sup>a</sup> nonsignificant or in one case increase in well-being for low WRS, increase in well-being for high WRS.  
<sup>b</sup> greater decrease in well-being for low WRS than for high WRS.  
<sup>c</sup> equal increase in well-being for low and high WRS.

Table 42 demonstrates that the results of the test for Hypothesis 7a. Work value group results differ from those of the total sample. Results among the work group themselves vary as well. Relative to this hypothesis test, Hypothesis 7d. is not supported.

**Table 43. Comparative Results for the Sample and Work Value Groups of the Regression of Well-Being on the Interaction Between Congruency and Work Role Salience -Hypothesis-7b.**

<b>Significant Sample Findings</b>	<b>Work Value Groups</b>			
	<b>Secure</b>	<b>Free</b>	<b>High</b>	<b>Balanced</b>
<b>Congruency:</b> greater increase in well-being for low WRS in two cases, same increase in two cases.	different <sup>a</sup>	ns	ns	different <sup>b</sup>
<b>Perceived Success<sup>^</sup>:</b> equal increase in well-being for low & high WRS.	same	same	same	same
<b># Responsibility Changes<sup>^</sup>:</b> equal increase in well-being for low & high WRS.	ns	ns	ns	ns
<b>Income Level<sup>^</sup>:</b> equal decrease in well-being for low & high WRS.	ns	ns	different <sup>a</sup>	ns

<sup>a</sup> control variables  
<sup>b</sup> nonsignificant for low WRS, increase in well-being for high WRS.

Table 43 demonstrates that for the test of Hypothesis 7b, results for congruency vary among work value groups and are different than results for the unstratified sample. The findings for the control variables also display different results between value groups and the total sample. Thus, in reference to this test, Hypothesis 7d. is not supported.

Table 44. Comparative Results for the Sample and Work Value Groups of the Regression of Well-Being on the Interaction Among Work Success, Congruency and Work Role Salience -Hypothesis-7c.

Significant Sample Findings	Work Value Groups			
	Secure	Free	High	Balanced
Perceived Success: equal increase in well-being for low & high WRS.	same	same	different <sup>a</sup>	different <sup>b</sup>
Congruency: equal increase in well-being for low & high WRS.	ns	ns	different <sup>c</sup>	same
Perceived Success/Congruency: greater increase in high WRS well-being than low WRS.	different <sup>d</sup>	different <sup>e</sup>	different <sup>f</sup>	same
# Promotions/Congruency: increase in high WRS well-being nonsignificant in low WRS.	ns	same <sup>g</sup>	different <sup>d</sup>	different <sup>d</sup>
# Responsibility Changes: increase in low WRS decrease in high WRS well-being.	ns	different <sup>h</sup>	different <sup>i</sup>	same
Responsibility/Congruency: decrease in high WRS well-being.	ns	different <sup>d</sup>	same	same <sup>j</sup>
Income Level: equal decrease in well-being for low & high WRS.	ns	different <sup>g</sup>	different <sup>k</sup>	different <sup>k</sup>
Income Level/Congruency: increase in high WRS well-being.	ns	different <sup>e</sup>	different <sup>e</sup>	different <sup>e</sup>

a in two cases, greater increase in well-being for high WRS.

b in one case nonsignificant and in another case less of an increase in well-being for low WRS.

c equal decrease in well-being.

d increase in well-being for low WRS, nonsignificant for high WRS.

e decrease in well-being for low WRS, nonsignificant for high WRS.

f overall decrease in well-being for respondents, in two cases greater decrease in well-being for high WRS.

g decrease in well-being for low WRS, increase for high WRS.

h greater increase in well-being for low WRS than for high WRS.

i nonsignificant for low WRS, decrease in well-being for high WRS.

j increase in well-being for low WRS, decrease in well-being for high WRS.

k equal increase in well-being.

Results from Table 44 of the comparative analysis for Hypothesis 7c. indicate that the findings for the total sample and work value groups differ. The results for work value groups also vary among each other. Comparative analyses for Hypotheses 7a. and 7b. also demonstrate that work success and congruency demonstrate different relationships for the unstratified sample and work value groups. In addition, MMRA's computed for the value groups explain much more of the variance in well-being than do the sample MMRA's. Thus, Hypothesis 7d. is generally not supported.

### Overview of Hypothesis Testing Results

Table 45 presents comparative summary results of hypothesis testing for the unstratified sample and work value groups. The discussion which follows provides a brief overview of the findings for each hypothesis for the total sample. While the table also reports the results of each hypothesis for work value groups, they are not discussed individually as their function in this study was to determine whether they differ from those of the sample in evaluating Hypotheses 4, 6d, and 7d.

**Table 45. Summary of Comparative Hypothesis Testing Results for The Total Sample and Work Value Groups.**

<b>Hypothesis</b>	<b>Total Sample</b>	<b>Getting Secure</b>	<b>Getting Free</b>	<b>Getting High</b>	<b>Getting Balanced</b>
1: Positive relationship between work success & well-being.	partial support <sup>a</sup>	partial support <sup>a</sup>	partial support <sup>a</sup>	partial support <sup>b</sup>	partial support <sup>b</sup>
2: Positive relationship between congruency and well-being.	support	no support	no support	no support	no support
3: Stronger positive relationship between work success and well-being when congruency is high than when low.	partial support <sup>m</sup>	no support	meager support <sup>l</sup>	partial support <sup>e</sup>	no support
4: Work success/congruency-greater increase in well-being for males than for females.	partial support <sup>c</sup>	no support	no support	no support	partial support
5: Results from 1, 2, & 3 same for total sample and work value groups.	no support; total sample & value groups differ	no support	no support	no support	no support
6a: Work success well-being relationship stronger for low NA than high NA.	partial support <sup>d</sup>	partial support <sup>e</sup>	partial support <sup>f</sup>	meager support <sup>g</sup>	partial support
6b: Congruency well-being relationship stronger for low NA than for high NA.	no support	no support	no support	no support	no support
6c: Work success/congruency well-being relationship stronger for low NA than for high NA.	partial support <sup>h</sup>	partial support <sup>h</sup>	partial support <sup>i</sup>	partial support <sup>h</sup>	meager support
6d: Results from 5a, 5b, & 5c same for total sample and work value groups.	no support; total sample & value groups differ	no support	no support	no support	no support

Hypothesis	Total Sample	Getting Secure	Getting Free	Getting High	Getting Balanced
7a: Work success well-being relationship stronger for high WRS than for low WRS.	partial support <sup>k</sup>	partial support <sup>a</sup>	no support	no support	no support
7b: Congruency well-being relationship stronger for high WRS than for low WRS.	no support	no support	no support	no support	meager support
7c: Work success/congruency well-being relationship stronger for high WRS than for low WRS.	support	no support	partial support <sup>m</sup>	no support	partial support
7d: Results from 6a, 6b, & 6c same for total sample and work value groups.	no support; total sample & value groups differ	no support	no support	no support	no support

a perceived success is the work success variable that provides support.

b perceived success and in one equation income provides support.

c the variable that does not provide support is promotion/congruency which results in a greater increase in well-being for females than for males.

d perceived success and congruency do not provide support as they are not moderated by NA.

e support is provided by # promotions and responsibility changes.

f support is provided by # responsibility changes and income level.

g support is provided exclusively by number of responsibility changes.

h support provided by perceived success/congruency and promotions/congruency.

i support provided by perceived success/congruency and responsibility changes/congruency.

j support provided by promotions/congruency exclusively.

k support provided by # responsibility changes and income level.

l support provided in one equation only.

m support provided by promotions/congruency and income level.

n support provided by perceived success, perceived success/congruency, and # responsibility changes.

Hypothesis 1 investigates the impact of work success on well-being. It is supported by the results of the perceived success variable exclusively as the other work success variables are nonsignificant. Hypothesis 2 evaluates the influence of congruency on well-being and is supported by the finding that congruency demonstrates a significant relationship with all self-report well-being equations.

Hypothesis 4 employed MRA to explore the effects of the interactions between work success and congruency on well-being. Promotions/congruency demonstrates a significant relationship with four well-being equations. Responsibility changes/congruency and income level/congruency demonstrates a significant relationship with one well-being equation. These findings lend some support for Hypothesis 3.

Hypothesis 4 utilized MMRA to ascertain whether gender moderates the interaction between work success and congruency in their relationship with well-being. It is posited that these interactions will have a more significant influence on well-being for males than for females. While gender is found to moderate many of these interactions, some are in the posited direction while others are not. Results of the interaction between perceived success and congruency and responsibility changes and congruency support the hypothesis, while results of the interaction between number of promotions and congruency do not.

Hypothesis 5 investigates whether different work value groups will demonstrate the same results for Hypotheses 1, 2, 3 and 4 as the total sample. While for certain variables in different work value groups the findings concur with the sample, the number of discrepancies is much greater. Furthermore, the findings among work value groups differ among themselves. This analysis is also conducted to test Hypotheses 6d. and 7d. The findings are the same as that for Hypothesis 5. These hypotheses are not supported as they indicate that work success predictors have differential effects on well-being for respondents in different work value groups.

Hypothesis 6a explores the interaction between Negative Affectivity and work success in predicting well-being. It is posited that work success will result in a

significantly greater increase in well-being for respondents who are low NA than for respondents who are high NA. Partial support for this hypothesis is demonstrated. NA is found to moderate responsibility changes, income and in one case perceived success in the posited direction. However, in the other perceived success equations NA is not a significant moderator.

Hypothesis 6b. examines the interaction between congruency and Negative Affectivity in predicting well-being. It is posited that congruency will result in a greater increase in well-being for low NA respondents than for high NA respondents. While in certain well-being equations NA does moderate congruency, it is in the opposite direction as is predicted and thus this hypothesis is not supported.

Hypothesis 6c. evaluates the moderating effect of NA on the interaction between work success and congruency in predicting well-being. In the MMRA's utilized in testing this hypothesis, the results for the interactions between perceived success and congruency, and number of promotions and congruency are in the posited direction. However, the responsibility changes and congruency interactions demonstrate findings opposite to what is posited. Thus, this hypothesis is partially supported.

Hypothesis 7a. investigates whether Work Role Salience moderates the interaction between work success and congruency in predicting well-being. It is posited that for people who are high WRS, work success will significantly result in a greater increase in well-being than for people who are low WRS. This hypothesis is partially supported. Income level and responsibility changes are moderated by WRS in the expected direction, while perceived success demonstrates similar strength for all respondents.

Hypothesis 7b. investigates the interaction between congruency and Work Role Salience in predicting well-being. It is posited that work success significantly results in a greater increase in well-being for respondents who are high WRS than for those for whom WRS is low. When WRS moderates congruency, the results are in the opposite direction to that which is predicted. This hypothesis is not supported.

Hypothesis 7c. evaluates the moderating effect of WRS on the interaction between work success and congruency in predicting well-being. In the MMRA's utilized in testing this hypothesis, the results for the interactions between perceived success and congruency, and number of promotions and congruency are in the posited direction. The interaction between income level and congruency also provides support. However, the responsibility changes and congruency interactions demonstrate findings opposite to what is posited. Overall, this hypothesis is supported.

## CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION

This chapter discusses the results of hypotheses in light of the research objectives posed in the introduction. Results for work success and congruency and individual differences will be addressed. Limitations of the research are then considered. The theoretical implications and practical applications of the study's findings are discussed and incorporate areas for future research.

### GENERAL CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSION OF THE RESEARCH FINDINGS

#### The Impact of Work Success on Well-Being

One of the objectives of this research was to ascertain the effect of attaining work success on well-being. Perceived success consistently demonstrates importance in determining well-being for all respondents regardless of moderator variables and work value groups. On the other hand, objective work success indicators demonstrate significant relationships with well-being only when moderator variables, congruency and/or work value groups are included in analyses. It appears that for successful people, how they feel about what they have achieved is more salient in determining their life satisfaction and happiness than are the objective indicators of work success.

The discussion which follows addresses the findings for moderated and stratified work success variables and provides explanations as to why they are significant in determining well-being. The influence of congruency on work success variables will be discussed in the following section.

When income level increases, well-being decreases for men, low NA and all WRS respondents, and for getting secure and getting free people. This may indicate that the pursuit of higher income has come at the expense of personal values (La Bier, 1986), or that the increase in material possessions that higher salary provides for has not resulted in the satisfaction that was anticipated (Korman et al., 1983). Respondents may also feel that

money has functioned to hold them in jobs that they do not enjoy. If work is a central life interest, then staying in a position that is not congruent with work values because of financial rewards can actually deplete instead of enhancing well-being.

As income level increases, well-being increases for high NA people in three work value groups. Despite their negative outlook, these respondents place a premium value on financial reward as it may delineate their success to others, provide justification for their ill feelings about life, or create additional opportunities. In the getting high value set, well-being is also heightened for men and high WRS respondents. As these people value creativity and excitement, rising salaries may provide them with a means for funding such endeavors.

Increasing income augments women's well-being. Literature addressing income and well-being suggests that income may serve to provide women with a sense of independence and competence. Other findings that tend to substantiate this assumption are that: increases in promotions demonstrate an increase in mate's perception of respondent well-being; as promotions and congruency increase simultaneously, self report and mate perception of well-being increase. Women do not experience the same discrepancy as do men between their self report and mate's perception of their well-being when it comes to promotions. Women tend to experience less value compromise in striving for success than do men (Loden, 1986). Perhaps women are more capable of balancing the demands of increasing hierarchical position and nonwork life.

However, for getting secure women, increases in promotions result in decreases in well-being. Research has demonstrated that women in general prefer work settings that allow them to use their creative and intuitive abilities. Here, promotions are more likely to come from a tenure or standardized system than from a performance system. As one reaches higher organizational levels, administrative skills may replace creative skills, i.e., one spends more time managing others than developing contributions to projects. Also, women may have to invest more time and energy in the workplace, detracting from non-

work life. Thus, the nature of the values in a getting secure setting may be contrary to women's preferences.

Promotional increases result in increases in well-being for men who are getting secure, and for men, women and high NA respondents who are getting free. While promotions may provide the getting secure male with the belief that his position in the organization is secure, for getting free people they may result in increasing autonomy. Promotions have a negative affect on low WRS respondent well-being. As work is not their central life interest, the demands of higher organizational position may limit the time and energy that these people prefer to invest in non-work activities. This assumption is supported by the results for responsibility increases.

Increases in responsibility changes result in decreases in well-being for men, women, and low WRS respondents. Changes in responsibilities may create the perception that the organization is displeased with performance, or may require more time and energy at the expense of nonwork life. This variable is also negative for getting high people. Responsibility changes may result in tasks that are more administrative, leaving less time for valued innovative opportunity.

When responsibility changes increase, well-being increases for men and women in the getting secure set, and for all NA and WRS respondents in the getting free group. Getting secure respondents value job stability and organizational citizenship. Increases in responsibility may provide these people with the sense that they are important to the organization and that their jobs are secure (otherwise the organization would not be changing their responsibilities). Getting free individuals may perceive changes in responsibilities as providing them with greater autonomy.

### The Impact of Congruency and its Interaction with Work Success on Well-Being

Another objective of this research was to determine the effect of congruency (a fit between ideal work values and those attained in the work setting), on well-being. While congruency demonstrates prominence in reports of well-being, its importance is not consistent for all respondents. In certain moderated analyses and for some work value groups, congruency is not a significant predictor of well-being, or demonstrates inconsistent results. These findings indicate that a fit between ideal and obtained work values may not be an important issue for some people. If work is not a central life concern, then the fulfillment of values through work may not be as salient as the fulfillment of values in other life domains. Furthermore, there may be individual differences that affect congruency's importance other than those investigated in this research.

The value of the congruency concept is demonstrated when it interacts with work success indicators. In many of the analyses discussed, objective work success variables do not demonstrate a relationship with well-being until congruency is taken into account. For instance, number of promotions does not demonstrate a significant relationship with self reports of well-being. However, when promotions and congruency interact and concurrent increases in promotions and congruency are evident, well-being is enhanced.

Furthermore, in many cases the direction of relationships between work success and well-being changes when these variables interact with congruency. For example; income level demonstrates a negative relationship with cognitive well-being. However, when income level and congruency interact, a stronger positive relationship with cognitive well-being results.

Changes in the direction of relationships is also apparent in moderated analyses. For instance, in the analysis investigating the effect of gender on the work success and well-being relationship, responsibility changes demonstrates a negative relationship of equal magnitude for men and women with general affective well-being. When responsibility changes and congruency interact, it is moderated by gender in four

well-being analyses. For males, the relationship with well-being is positive while for females it is nonsignificant and in one case, positive but weak.

These findings may assist in explaining the discrepancies in the literature which reports positive, negative, or no effect of work success on well-being. When increases in work success are coupled with increasing congruency, well-being is enhanced. When increases in work success are disparate with increases in congruency, well-being is curtailed. Thus, whether or not increases in promotions, income and responsibilities result in increases in well-being is dependent upon whether a person's ideal work values are fulfilled or compromised in the pursuit of such rewards.

Another finding that aids in understanding the contradictions in the literature arises when the results from the work value group profiles are considered. Different organizational rewards are salient for each work value group. These rewards demonstrate a positive relationship with well-being when they are congruent with the values indicative for that set.

For instance, while promotions and responsibility changes independently are significant for getting free respondents, they are not for getting high respondents until they are considered simultaneously with congruency. These rewards may provide the getting free person with the opportunity to gain greater control, and thus autonomy in the work environment. For getting high people, these rewards can be constraining as they may detract from the innovative and stimulating activities that these people desire. If these rewards result in new projects or opportunities for creative endeavors, then they can enhance well-being for getting high respondents.

Another example appears in the analyses for getting balanced respondents. In this value set, perceived success and congruency are the most consistent determinants of well-being. As these people strive to balance their life activities, the belief that they are successful, regardless of objective indicators, and their ability to keep their values intact while working significantly adds to their feelings of happiness and life satisfaction. For

getting balanced individuals, objective success variables were only significant when interacting with congruency and were not significant well-being predictors when evaluated individually.

Five work value sets were investigated yet only four provided an appropriate sample for analyses. The getting ahead set, where hierarchical position, money and power are prominent values, has only sixteen respondents who are solely identifiable with this group. This may reflect the changes in work values discussed by Asimov (1983) and Toffler (1981). They suggest that traditional organizational reward systems may be becoming obsolete as technology provides workers with the opportunity for more creative work and as people seek alternative lifestyles. The increasing number of dual career and single parent families may be influencing the development of a workforce segment that is less interested in organizational rewards that require more of their personal time. Instead, this workforce group may be more concerned with flexible scheduling, geographic stability and the ability to spend more of time in life outside of work.

Some support for this assumption is evidenced by the finding that the getting balanced work value group is the most popular in this study. While this finding may indicate that people's life styles are changing, it also may suggest that the items for this value set elicit a socially desirable response. The questions for each response set were presented in pairs with a forced choice format. It may be that respondents felt compelled to select those items that reflected the importance of family above work, even if other work values were more important.

More than sixty respondents were classified into multiple groups. Derr (1986) also discovered this possibility in his research. This finding suggests that people have preferences for a variety of values, that people may be working in more than one setting, or that people can not identify or do not have dominant work values.

### The Impact of Individual Differences on Well-Being

This research also proposed to discover the effect of individual differences on well-being. This research demonstrates that in some analyses gender, Negative Affectivity and Work Role Salience moderate the work success, congruency, well-being relationship. The findings that do not support hypotheses will be discussed for each individual difference variable.

Gender moderates the relationship between work success and well-being, except for the responsibility changes variable. Congruency is not moderated by gender. While the significant interactions between work success and congruency are more numerous for males than females, congruency plays a more significant role in well-being for females than was posited. For instance, number of promotions is an insignificant predictor of women's well-being. However, when congruency and promotions interact, well-being increases to a greater extent for women than for men. This finding suggests that certain organizational rewards enhance women's well-being when they are in concert with her values.

Organizational rewards also have the potential to create value conflict, e.g., they may intrude upon women's nonwork lives. While responsibility changes demonstrate a negative relationship with women's well-being, when responsibilities and congruency increase concurrently, well-being increases. Changes in responsibility may require a female to exert more energy in her work life and less energy in her nonwork life, curtailing her well-being. However, when these changes concur with her work values, well-being is enhanced. Thus, the importance of congruency in determining whether organizational rewards will enhance women's well-being may be dependent on the nature of the work success variable.

Another possible explanation for the significance of congruency for women may stem from the heterogeneity of the sample; they vary in age, marital status and number of

children. If the sample were stratified to reflect these different groups, congruency may demonstrate different findings.

While there are some instances where NA does moderate the work success, congruency, well-being relationship in the posited direction, unexpected findings also appear in both sample and work value group analyses. Overall, perceived success is as significant in determining well-being for people who are low NA as it is for people who are high NA. Although people who are high NA view themselves and the world in a negative context, this tendency does not appear to spill over into their assessment of what they do. Perhaps this personality trait is more prevalent in their assessment of what they have had to do to achieve,, i.e., they report that they experience stress in environments that are not stress producing (Brief et al., 1989), than it is for how they view their role in such achievement.

Perhaps the belief that they are successful is a mechanism employed to nullify the negativity they experience overall. Also, the NA trait may be more appropriate in the assessment of a different genre of well-being measures. Those that directly reflect an individuals reactions to work,, i.e., reports of stress, alienation and health complaints may be more appropriate than those which determine how the person views such efforts,, i.e., perceived success and congruency.

While income level detracts from well-being for most respondents, it enhances well-being for high NA respondents in different work value groups. For other respondents, the attainment of increasing income may result in disconfirmed expectations, value conflicts or the perception that one is trapped by money in a job they do not enjoy. For the high NA person, increasing salary may serve as a justification for their efforts if they do not enjoy their work. High NA people report that they experience strain in environments that are not stress producing. Perhaps money becomes a vindication for remaining in what they perceive to be a difficult work setting. Income may also function as their hallmark of success to themselves and others.

These findings may also indicate that this trait is inappropriate for the relationships investigated in this research. However, if the trait is as pervasive as researchers suggest (Brief, et al., 1989; Watson & Pennebaker, 1988; Watson & Clark, 1984), then an explanation for these deviant results may be a methodological one. The findings may be a result of the way in which the sample was categorized. Low and high NA groupings may be insufficient to tap the effects of NA for a person who is very high in the trait. Perhaps if three or four groups were created, the results for a very high NA group of people would differ from those obtained in this study.

While in some analyses high and low WRS individuals display contrasting results, work success variables did not demonstrate the array of differences that was posited. If work plays a salient role in a person's life, then perhaps work success is experienced more subjectively (in some analyses, perceived success is higher for high WRS than for low WRS respondents), than objectively. A recent study (Weiner, Muczyk, & Gable, 1989) demonstrates that the relationship between career satisfaction and well-being is stronger for low job involvement individuals than it is for high job involvement individuals. This finding is opposite to what was hypothesized. These authors suggest that objective work indicators may be less appropriate in assessing the importance of work in a person's life than are their values towards work. Thus, success indicators such as income and promotions may have less of an effect on high WRS individuals' well-being than would indicators that explore the intrinsic value that they place on what they do and the manner in which they achieve results.

### Disparities in Self Report and Significant Others Perception of Respondent Well-Being

Perceived success is the only work success variable that demonstrates importance and agreement in significant others' assessment of respondent well-being. The only deviation from this finding occurs for high NA individuals. While increasing perceived success results in increasing respondent and mate well-being assessments, co-worker perception of respondent well-being is negative.

For the objective success variables, agreement and significance varied among the respondent and his/her co-worker and mate's perception of well-being. These findings suggest that respondents and significant others interpret the effects of work success differently. The attainment of success may differentially influence a respondent's behavior in his/her work and nonwork lives, a finding that is also demonstrated by La Bier's (1986) clinical work. Results for promotions, responsibility changes and income level illustrate this point.

Promotional increases demonstrate a negative relationship with mate's perception of respondent well-being, but is insignificant for male respondents. Promotions usually result when a person performs well at work. Increases in performance may require an individual to invest more of themselves in work and thus have less time and energy to devote to life outside of work. While the respondent may not consider this behavior as problematic, the respondent's mate may. The mate may perceive that the respondent has had to sacrifice his nonwork life for the sake of work life. The mate may notice and/or experience the effects of this behavior e.g. anxiety, irritability and exhaustion, to a greater extent than the respondent does. Thus, the mate would perceive that the respondent's well-being decreases as promotions increase.

If however, promotions and congruency increase concurrently, i.e., that the respondent is still satisfying his ideal values as he attains higher organizational position, and if his mate perceives that the respondent's nonwork life has not been compromised,

then the mate would report an increase in the respondent's well-being. Research results demonstrate that this is the case for male respondent's and mate's perception of well-being. On the other hand, if a person perceives that his/her promotional history has been in concert with his/her values, and if the mate perceives that value compromises have occurred, then self reported well-being would increase while mate assessment of well-being would decrease. These relationships are demonstrated by low WRS respondents.

For men and women, when responsibility changes increase, self report and co-worker's perception of well-being decreases. This work success variable has a positive relationship with mate's perception of respondent well-being. This finding suggests that the respondent and co-worker interpret responsibility changes differently than does the mate. For instance, while a transfer to a department that requires less travel time may be interpreted by the respondent and co-worker as indicating organizational displeasure with how he performs on the road, the mate may interpret it as providing the respondent with an opportunity to spend more time with his family.

When responsibility changes and congruency increase together, respondent well-being increases. Co-worker perception of respondent well-being concurs with female reports but not with male's. This finding indicates that although respondents perceive responsibility changes as being in concert with their values, a man's co-worker may not be able to perceive that such changes are in line with what the respondent desires, while a woman's co-worker might. The co-worker's perception of the effect of responsibility changes on men's well-being may be based on what they may incorrectly perceive the respondent values. Women develop interpersonal relationships at work to a greater extent than do men, thus their co-workers may be more apt to discern whether responsibility changes reflect what the respondent desires.

Increasing income, and unequal increases in income and congruency reduce self reported well-being for high WRS respondents. On the contrary, the co-worker perceives that increasing salary heightens respondent well-being. In this culture, income level is

recognized as a hallmark of success. Thus, while a co-worker may view increasing income as an indicator of work performance and as a life enhancer, the respondent may perceive that increases in income do not indicate work success. Instead they may view this reward as binding them to an unfulfilling job regardless of what others may think.

## LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH

Analysis of findings suggests that deviations from hypotheses may indicate the presence of research shortcomings. The discussion which follows will address the issues of variable operationalization, scale construction and research methodology, and proposes areas for future research.

### Variable Operationalization and Scale Construction

The results from this research may be confounded by the way in which certain variables were operationalized. The question that asks respondents how many responsibility changes he/she has had in the past ten years was intended to identify whether lateral organization movement occurred. The assumption behind this question was that some people may prefer or experience organizational mobility other than traditional hierarchical promotions, i.e., managing a new project or being transferred to a position in a different department with a similar rank.

This work success variable displays a variety of findings. In many cases responsibility changes demonstrate a negative relationship with well-being and a positive relationship when it interacts with congruency. There is also disagreement among respondent, mate and co-worker well-being assessments and responsibility changes. This indicates that the interpretation as to what responsibility changes are and what they signify is not uniform for respondents and significant others. Perhaps if the question was worded differently or if a second indicator for this variable was included in the questionnaire the results may have demonstrated more consistency.

In all analyses and contrary to other empirical research, job title is not a significant predictor of well-being. Job title was measured in an open response format and was coded to reflect categories identified by The Dictionary of Occupational Titles. Numerous job title groups resulted. Additional analysis whereby the job titles are factor analyzed into a few

distinguishable groups may reveal significant relationships with well-being which do not appear at present.

The assessment of work value groups may also suffer from problems in operationalization. While the measure was designed to tap five value sets, only four demonstrated clear respondent identification. The getting ahead set had only sixteen respondents who reported that the values of this set reflected their work setting. This finding does not concur with the findings from Derr's (1986) research which resulted in strong respondent identification with the getting ahead value group. On the other hand, the getting balanced group has three and four times as many respondents as do the other three work value groups. While the findings for getting ahead and getting balanced work value groups may indicate changing work force values, it may also reflect the respondent's tendency to select items that represent value sets that they believe are more socially desirable, even if they are not indicative of their values.

The items were presented in forced choice format. This type of scale design may have influenced respondent choice. For instance; if a getting ahead item, which would indicate that power, centrality and hierarchical position are salient, was coupled with an item that reflected a getting balanced set, which would indicate that time spent with family and in self development are salient, then the respondent may be more apt to select the item which he/she perceived as more socially desirable than the item which reflected what his/her work setting was really like. Furthermore, when the choice is between organizational power and family, selecting the power alternative may create dissonance and/or anxiety. Thus the respondent may avoid this state by selecting the family alternative. Future research should attempt to identify whether the coupling of certain items influences respondent choice. If this is found to be the case, then these items may require a different presentation and/or have their language altered.

Another problem in operationalization is indicated by the findings for Work Role Salience. As discussed, the effect of the importance of work in a person's life on well-

being for high WRS people may be more a function of the activities they perform at work than are the objective rewards they receive. Future research can explore what kinds of rewards a high WRS person prefers. Objective rewards should not be the exclusive focus but also subjective ones that would approach issues such as the opportunity to select work projects, to schedule one's own time, and to choose project peers.

The disparity in the findings for Negative Affectivity may be a result of the scale used to tap this trait. The PANAS is a new measure that has been used previously in Watson & Pennebaker's (1988) study of somatic complaints. This scale was selected because of its brevity, theoretical development and statistical integrity. Other studies (e.g. Brief et al., 1989) investigating NA have employed Tellegen's (1982) measure which has a different format, style and response scale than does the PANAS. Perhaps if another NA measure was utilized in this study the findings would have provided greater support for hypotheses.

#### Methodological Issues

A methodological limitation of this research concerns the generalizability of sample findings. Respondents were obtained using a variety of methods in an attempt to achieve representatives for Derr's (1986) work value groups. However, the sample can not be considered random, thus interpretation of findings is limited. While every effort was made to sample people in a variety of occupations and industries, there were companies that denied access to their employees. The overall response rate was 33% and nonrespondents were not surveyed. Thus, the sample may not be completely representative of successful working people in the New York metropolitan area, and whether any differences exist between respondents and nonrespondents cannot be evaluated. Furthermore, as all respondents came from one geographic region the findings can not be generalized to populations of successful working people in other areas of this country or other countries. Future research on a national and crosscultural scale would add validity to the research model and would assist in identifying other theoretical shortcomings.

## THEORETICAL IMPLICATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

Research concerning the dimensionality of the well-being construct has posited that cognition and affect play similar and distinctive roles in an individual's well-being assessment. The findings from this research concur. Although these two concepts correlate, they also demonstrate different results in hypothesis testing.

In unsegmented analyses, explained variance is consistently higher for the cognitive well-being measures than for the affective well-being measures. In these analyses, the cognitive measures demonstrate more significant relationships with work success variables and exclusive relationships with income level, income level/congruency, responsibility changes and responsibility changes/congruency.

In work value group analyses, general affective well-being demonstrates a higher explained variance and a larger number of significant variables overall. In the majority of analyses, perceived success/congruency and promotions/congruency are significant in this analysis alone. Furthermore, in moderated analyses, affective and cognitive well-being measures demonstrate differences in the magnitude of beta weights for segmented respondents. These findings suggest that future well-being research should incorporate measures for both dimensions in order to more completely evaluate the construct.

Well-being is assessed in this research utilizing both single item questions and multiple item scales. While some of the findings from these measures concur, others do not. For example: in certain analyses, the multiple item cognitive well-being scale demonstrates a greater number of relationships with work success indicators than does the single item measure. Future well-being investigations should not rely on single item instruments in assessing well-being as significant relationships may be overlooked. While it is worthy to determine how people perceive their lives overall, there is also value in identifying which life domains enhance or detract from the well-being experience.

If a person's feelings and satisfactions about life have different origins, then the next phase of investigation can determine whether these two dimensions result in different behaviors. For instance, future research may explore whether a person's satisfactions or happiness with life play a more significant role in their intentions to make an organizational or career change.

In all analyses, perceived success demonstrates the strongest and most consistent findings of any work success variable. However, the elements of this concept are at present unclear. A MMRA of perceived success on the objective indicators of work success would identify whether these variables are significant dimensions and if so, their strength in determining self-perceived success. Other possible dimensions may be those that reflect personality characteristics such as: self esteem, locus of control and self efficacy. If perceived success has a strong impact on well-being, then knowledge concerning what dynamics are indicative in such an assessment is valuable.

In many analyses, increasing levels of income demonstrates a negative relationship with well-being. Future investigations into the effects of money on life satisfaction and happiness can explore whether salary increases tend to: hold a person in an unsatisfying position, result in disconfirmed expectations, or have been attained at the expense of value compromises.

The findings for the operationalization of the congruency concept in a value orientation may provide researchers with a mechanism for discerning the current disparities in the work success/ well-being literature. This study demonstrates that independently, the attainment of promotions, responsibilities and high salaries are insignificant well-being determinants for the unstratified sample. However, these success indicators become significant when interacting with congruency. When these rewards are achieved without the compromise of salient work values, well-being is enhanced. On the other hand, when these rewards are achieved at the expense of ideal work values, well-being declines.

Future research can incorporate the congruency concept in assessing how the achievement of work success affects life satisfaction and happiness.

In some analyses, congruency demonstrates inconsistent results in determining well-being. These findings indicate that work values may not be important to all people. Investigation into individual differences that may influence the importance of values, and thus congruency, can commence by exploring whether self-esteem has a significant effect. If a person does not regard him/herself as worthy, then the salience of values may become a moot issue.

Some of the results for the interaction between perceived success and congruency indicate that the directionality of influence between these variables is unclear. Does congruency enhance the significance of perceived success, or does perceived success enhance the significance of congruency? The underpinnings for this question are illustrated by the following findings: when considered independently, perceived success is consistently a significant determinant of well-being while congruency is significant in some cases but not in others. When significant, congruency correlates and beta weights are weaker than those for perceived success. In some analyses where congruency is insignificant, the interaction between perceived success and congruency is significant. A path analysis between congruency and objective and subjective indicators of work success may assist in determining the direction of affect among these variables.

This research also suggests that gender moderates work success, congruency and well-being relationships. While many of the findings are in the posited direction, the mixed results for women suggest that congruency may be a more important variable than was initially theorized. It may also indicate that these relationships vary for women with different nonwork responsibilities. Future investigations into the impact of work success on well-being should stratify the sample of women according to demographic issues such as marital status, number of children and age. This type of elaboration analysis would identify whether significant differences exist among these groups of women.

## PRACTICAL APPLICATIONS

This study demonstrates that work value groups influence the relationships among work success, congruency, individual differences and well-being. The implications of these findings for human resource managers and career counselors are significant. Some of the common dilemmas for these professionals are: how to select individuals for various organizational positions that will be beneficial for both the person and the company, whom to promote, how to structure reward packages that will motivate employees, and how to decrease the turnover and burnout of corporate citizens. An understanding of the nature of people with different work values, and the influence of these work values on their satisfaction, may provide a framework for the development of solutions to these problems.

As demonstrated in this research, people with different value orientations have a preference for different work activities and organizational rewards. The identification of a person's work value set, and the realistic assessment of the work values that an organization is capable of offering, may provide a mechanism for creating a fit between an organization and an individual.

Human resource managers can determine the value structure of a position through job analysis and reward systems. The value orientation of potential members should also be identified in order to determine whether the position they are being considered for has the potential to satisfy their values. By creating a fit between the prospective employee and the organization, job tenure as well as productivity may increase. Whether or not this system of matching would be successful is dependent upon the human resource manager's provision of realistic job previews and the job seeker's ability to assess what they value.

This system can also prove beneficial in determining whom to promote into what type of position. If a person values creativity, then rewarding him/her with a promotion that results in increasing administrative duties may be unsuccessful. However, a lateral

move such as new project development may result in a match between what the person prefers to do and what the organization needs.

Reward systems can also be structured in a variety of ways. While a getting ahead person would welcome financial remuneration, a getting balanced person may prefer the opportunity to attend seminars to develop new skills or comprehensive benefit packages that would provide greater coverage for his/her family.

A person's work value structure may change as life and career stages change. It would be prudent for human resource professionals to periodically re-assess the work value sets of their employees. This activity may assist in future career pathing within the organization, as well as identifying a need to restructure the employees' future rewards. For instance; while an unmarried employee may enjoy work-related travel and organizational opportunities to develop new skills, a married employee may prefer work that does not require travel and more comprehensive health benefits. A middle-aged employee whose children are independent may desire to take on additional organizational responsibilities or may prefer to invest more time in his/her own self-development.

These applications for determining the work value orientation of an individual also provide topics for future research. The development of knowledge in this field of inquiry may assist organizations in decreasing turnover and burnout, while developing committed corporate citizens, and enhancing employee well-being.

APPENDIX A: SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

### **Cover Letter**

I am grateful that you have decided to take part in this research. Enclosed please find a survey that addresses various issues concerning work life and its impact on Well-Being. Your organization has allowed me to issue this survey to you, however this study will be used for research purposes only. All returned surveys will be held in the strictest confidence and there is no way for your response to be identified with you.

The survey has three parts. The body of the survey contains questions about your values and Well-Being. The next part requests that a peer at work answer five questions about you, and is in the envelope marked "co-worker". The third part requests that a person from your private life answer the same questions about you as did your work peer. It is in the envelope marked "mate". Please select people that you believe can easily answer these questions.

When you have completed the survey, place it in the self-addressed, stamped envelope provided. These materials are being sent to me at Baruch College, C.U.N.Y., and I will be the only person who will have access to them. Again, all responses are confidential.

If you would like a summary of results, write your name and address on the separate form located at the survey's conclusion.

Thank you for your time on my behalf.

Respectfully Yours,

Helen Rothberg



Each item contains two statements. Select the one that you feel more accurately reflects your **ideal** work situation. You must choose one of the statements. Selecting one alternative **does not** infer that the other can not co-exist. The issue is which of the alternatives is most salient for your ideal work circumstance. Do not skip any pair of statements or circle both alternatives of one set. Circle the letter corresponding to the one sentence that you feel reflects your **ideal** of work. Do not spend a lot of time weighing your answers.

- |    |  |   |
|----|--|---|
| 1. | I can organize myself and others to win.   | V |
|    | I can do my own thing in an organization.  | X |
| 2. | I can balance my time for leisure and the development of significant relationships                             | Y |
|    | I subordinate personal needs in order to get ahead.  | V |
| 3. | An organization that rewards hard work, loyalty, and competence.   | W |
|    | I can set my own goals and accomplish them at my own pace and in my own way.                                   | X |
| 4. | I can be aggressive and use my political skills.   | V |
|    | I can keep a perspective between the needs of my work and the needs of my family.                              | Y |
| 5. | I can work independently.  | X |
|    | I can be part of a stable organization and have my own place in it.  | W |
| 6. | A work situation where I am an expert or "troubleshooter" and can demonstrate my expertise in different areas. | Z |
|    | A work situation where I am the leader and am responsible for achieving certain objectives.                    | V |
| 7. | My spouse/partner and career receive equal amounts of my time.   | Y |
|    | Working on exciting projects would command the majority of my time.  | Z |
| 8. | Freedom.   | X |
|    | Balance between work and non-work life.  | Y |

- |     |   |   |
|-----|---|---|
| 9.  | An opportunity to be competent, loyal, trustworthy, and hard-working.           | W |
|     | An opportunity to be politically skillful, a good leader, and an administrator. | V |
| 10. | An opportunity to be self-reliant.  | X |
|     | An opportunity to be flexible with my schedule.                                 | Y |
| 11. | Being engaged in exciting work.   | Z |
|     | Being my own boss.  | X |
| 12. | An opportunity to achieve balance between work and non-work life.               | Y |
|     | An opportunity to be adventurous and competitive.                               | Z |
| 13. | An opportunity to be self-reliant, self-sufficient.                             | X |
|     | An opportunity to be imaginative, enthused.                                     | Z |
| 14. | An opportunity to be stable and tenacious.                                      | W |
|     | An opportunity to be independent and self-directed.                             | X |
| 15. | An opportunity to plan and organize for my own purposes.                        | V |
|     | An opportunity to analyze situations and develop creative new solutions.        | Z |
| 16. | An opportunity to acquire expertise in my field.                                | Z |
|     | An opportunity to be a solid citizen.   | W |
| 17. | Be able to put the organization's goals before my own.                          | W |
|     | Be able to fulfill both the organization's goals and my own goals.              | Y |
| 18. | An opportunity to control my work circumstance.                                 | X |
|     | An opportunity to not let work interfere with the needs of my family.           | Y |
| 19. | The opportunity for promotions.   | V |
|     | The opportunity to tackle challenging problems or tasks.                        | Z |
| 20. | To be in the center of power.   | V |
|     | To have long term employment, acceptance, and be valued by the organization.    | W |

- |     |  |   |
|-----|--|---|
| 21. | To know the right people and make the right friends for advancement.                                     | V |
|     | To be able to develop my career along my own areas of interest.  | X |
| 22. | To be able to achieve a sense of balance between work and private life.                                  | Y |
|     | To have stability, benefits, and job security.   | W |
| 23. | To have a position with considerable self-control and autonomy.  | X |
|     | To do work that is crucial and central to the power structure.   | V |
| 24. | Be able to have stability, benefits, and job security.   | W |
|     | Be able to advance in the organization.  | V |
| 25. | Be able to have financial success, power, and prestige.  | V |
|     | Be able to have equal time for work, family, and self development.                                       | Y |
| 26. | Be able to engage in professional development to enhance and acquire skills.                             | Z |
|     | Engage in professional development as a means to become an expert and gain flexibility and independence. | X |
| 27. | To have equilibrium between personal and professional life.  | Y |
|     | To have excitement and stimulation.  | Z |
| 28. | To achieve expertise in my field.  | Z |
|     | To be considered dependable and loyal.   | W |
| 29. | Manage people on a long-term basis.  | W |
|     | Manage people on a task force or project basis.  | Z |
| 30. | To have a job where there is security and a sense of belonging.  | W |
|     | To be able to devote time to family and other personal activities.                                       | Y |

Each item contains two statements. Select the one that you feel more accurately reflects your **present** work situation. You must choose one of the statements. Selecting one alternative does not infer that the other can not co-exist. The issue is which of the alternatives is most descriptive of your current work circumstance. Do not skip any pair of statements or circle both alternatives of one set. Circle the letter corresponding to the one sentence that you feel best reflects your **present** work situation. Do not spend a lot of time weighing your answers.

- |    |   |   |
|----|---|---|
| 1. | I work to organize myself and others to win.  | V |
|    | I do my own thing in the organization.  | X |
| 2. | I balance my time for leisure and the development of significant relationships.                     | Y |
|    | I subordinate personal needs in order to get ahead.   | V |
| 3. | I work in an organization that rewards hard work, loyalty, and competence.                          | W |
|    | I set my own goals and accomplish them at my own pace and in my own way.                            | X |
| 4. | I am aggressive and use my political skills.  | V |
|    | I keep a perspective between the needs of my work and the needs of my family.                       | Y |
| 5. | I work independently.   | X |
|    | I am part of a stable organization and have my own place in it.                                     | W |
| 6. | I work as an expert or "troubleshooter" and am able to demonstrate my expertise in different areas. | Z |
|    | I work in a situation where I am the leader and am responsible for achieving certain objectives.    | V |
| 7. | My spouse/partner and career share equal parts of my time.  | Y |
|    | My spouse/partner shares less of my time when I am working on a project.                            | Z |
| 8. | I have freedom.   | X |
|    | I have balance between work and non-work life.  | Y |
| 9. | I am competent, loyal, trustworthy, and hard working.   | W |
|    | I am politically skillful, a good leader, and an administrator.                                     | V |

- |     |   |   |
|-----|---|---|
| 10. | I am self-reliant.  | X |
|     | I am flexible with my schedule.                           | Y |
| 11. | I do exciting work.                                       | Z |
|     | I am my own boss.   | X |
| 12. | I have balance between work and non-work life.            | Y |
|     | I am adventurous and competitive.                         | Z |
| 13. | I am self-reliant, self-sufficient.                       | X |
|     | I am imaginative, enthused.                               | Z |
| 14. | I am stable and tenacious.                                | W |
|     | I am independent and self-directed.                       | X |
| 15. | I plan and organize for my own purposes.                  | V |
|     | I analyze situations and develop creative new solutions.  | Z |
| 16. | I am an expert in my field.                               | Z |
|     | I am a solid citizen.                                     | W |
| 17. | I put the organization's goals before my own.             | W |
|     | I fulfill both the organization's goals and my own goals. | Y |
| 18. | I control my work circumstance.                           | X |
|     | I do not let work interfere with the needs of my family.  | Y |
| 19. | I have the opportunity to be promoted.                    | V |
|     | I have to tackle challenging problems or tasks.           | Z |

- |     |  |   |
|-----|--|---|
| 20. | I am in the center of power.   | V |
|     | I have long term employment, acceptance, and am valued by the organization.                                | W |
| 21. | I know the right people and have the right friends for career advancement.                                 | V |
|     | I develop my career along my own areas of interest.  | X |
| 22. | I am able to balance my work and private life.   | Y |
|     | I have stability, benefits, and job security.  | W |
| 23. | My position allows considerable self-control and autonomy.   | X |
|     | I do work that is crucial and central to the power structure.  | V |
| 24. | I have stability, benefits, and job security.  | W |
|     | I have the potential to advance in the organization.   | V |
| 25. | I have financial success, power, and prestige.   | V |
|     | I have equal time for work, family, and self-development.  | Y |
| 26. | I engage in professional development to enhance and acquire skills.  | Z |
|     | I engage in professional development as a means to become an expert and gain flexibility and independence. | X |
| 27. | I have a position that lets me balance my personal and professional life.                                  | Y |
|     | I have a position that is exciting and stimulating.  | Z |
| 28. | I acquire expertise in my field.   | Z |
|     | I am expected to be dependable and loyal.  | W |
| 29. | I manage people on a long-term basis.  | W |
|     | I manage people on a task force or project basis.  | Z |
| 30. | My job provides me with a sense of belonging and security.   | W |
|     | My job enables me to devote time to family and other personal activities.                                  | Y |

This scale consists of a number of words that describe different feelings and emotions. Read each item and then mark the appropriate answer in the space next to that word. Indicate to what extent you generally feel this way on the average. Use the following scale to record your answers.

1	2	3	4	5
very slightly or not at all	a little	moderately	quite a bit	extremely
___ interested				___ irritable
___ distressed				___ alert
___ excited				___ ashamed
___ upset				___ inspired
___ strong				___ nervous
___ guilty				___ determined
___ scared				___ attentive
___ hostile				___ jittery
___ enthusiastic				___ active
___ proud				___ afraid

Please place an " X " on the number which best reflects your satisfaction with the following items.

1	2	3	4	5
not at all	a little	somewhat	very	extremely
satisfying	satisfying	satisfying	satisfying	satisfying

1. How satisfying do you find the ways you are spending your life these days? \_\_\_\_\_

2. How satisfying is your non-work life? \_\_\_\_\_

3. How satisfying are your intimate relationships? \_\_\_\_\_

4. How satisfying are your friendships? \_\_\_\_\_

1	2	3	4	5
not at all	a little	somewhat	very	extremely
satisfied	satisfied	satisfied	satisfied	satisfied

5. How satisfied are you with your health? \_\_\_\_\_

6. How satisfied are you with the ways you spend your leisure time? \_\_\_\_\_

7. How satisfied are you with your work? \_\_\_\_\_

8. Taking all things into account, how would you say you are feeling these days? \_\_\_\_\_

1	2	3	4	5
not at all	a little	somewhat	very	extremely
successful	successful	successful	successful	successful

9. How successful do you perceive yourself to be at work? \_\_\_\_\_

How do you feel about your life? Please place an "X" over the number between each pair of words that best reflects your feelings about your life.

Boring	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Interesting
Miserable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Enjoyable
Useless	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Worthwhile
Lonely	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Friendly
Empty	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Full
Discouraging	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Hopeful
Disappointing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Rewarding
Doesn't give me much of a chance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Brings out my best
Hard	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Easy
Tied down	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Free

This scale is intended to measure the importance of work in a person's life. Please place an "X" under the appropriate response to describe how you feel about the importance of work in your life.

	Strongly Agree 1	Agree 2	Uncertain 3	Disagree 4	Strongly Disagree 5
1. I intend to pursue the job of my choice even if it cuts deeply into the time I have for my family.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
2. It is more important to have some leisure time after work than to have a job in your chosen field, be devoted to it, and be a success at it.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
3. If you work very hard on your job, you can't enjoy better things in life.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
4. Work is one of the few areas in life where you can gain real satisfaction.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
5. I intend to pursue the job of my choice, even if it limits my personal freedom to enjoy life.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
6. To me, a job should be viewed primarily as a way of making good money.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
7. It is difficult to find satisfaction in life unless you enjoy your work.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
8. Work is one of the "necessary evils."	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

	Strongly Agree 1	Agree 2	Uncertain 3	Disagree 4	Strongly Disagree 5
9. I'm ready to make many sacrifices to get ahead in my job.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
10. I look at work as a means of expressing myself.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
11. I would consider myself extremely "career minded".	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
12. I could never be truly happy in life unless I have achieved success in my work.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
13. I intend to pursue the job of my choice, even if it allows very little opportunity to enjoy friends.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
14. I want to be able to pretty much forget about my job when I leave work in the evenings.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
15. I intend to pursue the job of my choice, even if it leaves me little time for other activities.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
16. It is more important to have a job in your chosen field of interest, be devoted to it, and be a success at it than to have a close-knit family that shares many experiences.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
17. The whole idea of working and holding a job is kind of distasteful to me.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

	Strongly Agree 1	Agree 2	Uncertain 3	Disagree 4	Strongly Disagree 5
18. . It is more important to be liked by your fellow man, devote your energies to the betterment of man, and be at least of some help to someone than to have a job in your chosen field of interest, be devoted to it, and and be a success at it.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
19. I would move to another part of the country if I thought it would help advance my career.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

Please place an "X" on the number which best reflects your perception concerning your mate.

1. How satisfied is your mate with life in general?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all satisfied	not very satisfied	satisfied	very satisfied	extremely satisfied

2. How pleased does your mate appear to be with his/her non-work life?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all pleased	not very pleased	pleased	very pleased	extremely pleased

3. How satisfied does your mate appear to be with his/her work life?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all satisfied	not very satisfied	satisfied	very satisfied	extremely satisfied

4. How does your mate appear to enjoy life as a whole?

1	2	3	4	5
does not enjoy life	enjoys life somewhat	enjoys life	enjoys life very much	enjoys life extremely

5. Do you think that your mate is successful at work?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all successful	not very successful	somewhat successful	successful	extremely successful

Please place an "X" on the number which best reflects your perception concerning your co-worker.

1. How satisfied is your co-worker with life in general?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all satisfied	not very satisfied	satisfied	very satisfied	extremely satisfied

2. How pleased does your co-worker appear to be with his/her non-work life?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all pleased	not very pleased	pleased	very pleased	extremely pleased

3. How satisfied does your co-worker appear to be with his/her work life?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all satisfied	not very satisfied	satisfied	very satisfied	extremely satisfied

4. How does your co-worker appear to enjoy life as a whole?

1	2	3	4	5
does not	enjoys life somewhat	enjoys life	enjoys life very much	enjoy life extremely

5. Do you think that your co-worker is successful at work?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all successful	not very successful	somewhat successful	successful	extremely successful

APPENDIX B

THE IMPACT OF WORK SUCCESS, CONGRUENCY  
AND INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES ON WELL-BEING:  
PILOT STUDY

## Introduction

The purpose of this research is to pre-test the questionnaire that was designed to explore "The Impact of Work Success and Congruency on Well-being". The questionnaire was developed to answer the following research questions:

1. What is the effect of achieving work success on well-being?
2. What is the effect of congruency on well-being?
3. Are there individual difference variables that moderate the relationship among work success, congruency, and well-being?

The intention of this research is to discover any inherent problems with the questionnaire. The issues to be explored are: the clarity of items with regard to language and instruction, completion time, respondents' impressions of the questionnaire's purpose, whether the scales employed are good operationalizations of the concepts involved, and if the scales work well together. As this research is to serve as a pilot for a large scale investigation forthcoming, the sample's size will not be adequate for formal hypothesis testing at this time.

This paper will begin by identifying and defining key variables, their conceptual underpinnings, and resulting hypotheses. The methods section will identify the survey's contents, respondents, data analysis and results. An integration of the results and recommendations for content alterations will be presented in the discussion at this report's conclusion.

## Research Variables and Hypotheses

The research variables will be presented and defined. A brief discussion of their conceptual underpinnings will be offered so that resulting hypotheses can be articulated. The dependent variable will be presented first, followed by the independent variables, and then the moderator variables.

### DEPENDENT VARIABLE: WELL-BEING

The dependent variable in this study is well-being. Well-being reflects an individual's subjective Quality of Life, i.e., the psychological state of a person in relation to oneself and the world around him/her. It has two identifiable components; an affective component and a cognitive component, each of which reflect different dimensions of psychological functioning.

Cognition reflects the process whereby relativism enters into judgments of satisfaction. Satisfactions derive from aspirations and standards of comparison, such that level of satisfaction requires evaluation by the individual of perceived discrepancies between aspirations and achievements (McKennell & Andrews, 1983; Campell, 1980; Campell, et al. 1976). Affect, on the other hand, refers to the individual's emotional state that is not tied to a cognitive frame of reference (McKennell & Andrews, 1983; Andrews, 1978). Satisfaction then infers evaluation and judgment where affect infers emotional reactions. Empirical research has demonstrated these two concepts- satisfaction and affect - to be different (Diener & Emmons, 1985; Diener, 1984; Michalos, 1980; Zajonc, 1980; and McKennell, 1978). Both components will be employed in evaluating well-being.

### INDEPENDENT VARIABLES

#### Work Success

Work success is a concept that has been researched both empirically and conceptually. Empirical investigations of work success define the term according to its objective indicators, i.e., level of income, occupation, hierarchical position, number of

promotions, and material possessions. In this framework, the work successful person is one who has a high level of personal income, is engaged in a profession that is categorized as glamorous or fast track and accrues social esteem, power and an expensive residence, a car and/or material possessions.

Conceptual investigations of work success define the term more subjectively. In this framework work success is operationalized as peer respect, or self-perceived success. Here the work successful person is one whose work accrues prestige or the self-perception that the person is work successful regardless of what objective indicators suggest.

In this study, work success reflects the goal-directed exertion of physical and mental energy at work whereby a desired purpose is achieved. The purpose may be objective such as job title, promotions, or salary level, or subjective such as self-perceived work success or satisfaction. This research will investigate both of these kinds of work success.

Research results concerning the impact of work success on well-being demonstrates positive effects such as life satisfaction (Shrivastava, 1978; and Campell et al, 1976), and perceived work success and work satisfaction (Gattiker & Larwood, 1987), and negative effects such as alienation (La Bier, 1987; Lang, 1985, Korman et al, 1986; and Korman, 1980), and conflicting role demands (Greenhaus et. al.,1987; Kopleman et. al., 1983; Brief, 1980; and Korman, 1980).

**Hypothesis 1: There will be a positive correlation between Work Success and Well-Being, independent of Congruency.**

### Congruency

Congruency is a condition of the person-environment fit paradigm. The PE fit paradigm is a "method for understanding the process of fit between organization members and their environments" (Caplan, 1988, 249). Congruence is distinguished as "the degree of fit or match between two sets of variables (person and environment) in producing positive and negative outcomes" (Muchinsky & Monahan, 268). People are posited to respond to different environments in accordance with their perception of fit between themselves and their surroundings (French & Caplan, 1972).

In this study, congruency is defined as concurrence between a person's ideal work values and obtained work values. Work values are articulated as reflecting one of five categories or sets: Getting Ahead, Getting Secure, Getting Free, Getting High, and Getting Balanced. The Getting Ahead set reflects the work values of hierarchical advancement, power, mobility and high income. The Getting Secure set reflects the work values of employment stability and security. A Getting Free work value set is one where independence and decision-making autonomy are the most salient values. A Getting High work value set is one where creativity and excitement are key issues. The Getting Balanced set is one where a person is able to balance his/her time and energy among work, family, and self-development.

Empirical research has demonstrated that congruency results in high performance and low stress (Pervin, 1968), high satisfaction (Assouline & Meir, 1988; Tziner, 1983; and Mount and Muchinsky, 1978), and high morale and low work strain (French, 1982). The presence of incongruency is viewed as resulting in decreased performance, dissatisfaction and stress (Osipow & Spokane, 1983 and Pervin, 1968), and personal dysfunction (Moos, 1988).

**Hypothesis 2: There will be a positive correlation between Congruency and Well-Being, independent of Work Success.**

## MODERATOR VARIABLES

### Gender

Research has indicated that gender moderates the relationship between career success and satisfaction (Greenhaus et. al., 1987). Gilligan (1982) proposes that men and women undergo different maturation processes whereby men develop independence, logical thinking and avoidance of relationships. Women, on the other hand, develop interrelationships and the need for intimacy. Ginzberg, et.al. (1966), suggest that men and women undergo different developmental career stages and Zytowski (1969) differentiates the woman as developing the dual roles of homemaker and worker because she can bear children. Females then, have had to make career choices that are governed by the parental role. Futhermore, it is only recently that women have been able to participate in all aspects of industry and organizational life. Thus, they have had a history of working in settings that may not have been their choice or that are incongruent with their work values.

Traditionally, as men mature they learn that their role is that of income provider. As they usually do not develop the dual role of child rearer and worker they may not become as accustomed to incongruency as females may. Men may find themselves in work settings that are not congruent with their value set yet they may be unable to change their work situation because of family responsibilities. Thus, men may be less tolerant of incongruency overall than their female counterparts.

**Hypothesis 3: The incremental change in Well-Being per unit change in the interaction between Work Success and Congruency will be greater for Males than for Females.**

The relationships proposed in hypotheses 1,2,3 should not be work value set specific. It is the condition of congruency that is conceptualized to impact well-being. If congruency exists, then a positive relationship with well-being should be evident regardless of the work value category. The moderating effect of gender should also be unencumbered by the work value set.

**Hypothesis 4: The positive relationships proposed in Hypotheses 1,2, 3 will not differ across different sets of work-values.**

#### Negative Affectivity

Negative Affectivity (NA) is a mood dispositional dimension (Watson & Clark, 1984) that has been receiving considerable empirical and conceptual attention in the applied psychological literature. NA reflects individual differences in "negative emotionality and self concept: High-NA individuals tend to be distressed and upset and have a negative view of self, whereas those low on the dimension are relatively content and secure and satisfied with themselves" (Watson & Clark, 1984 p.465). Furthermore, NA also manifests itself in the absence of overt stress, and reflects a negative view of the world, others and self. Watson and Clark (1984) suggest that NA is a subjective experience and not dependent on objective conditions: "it emphasizes how people feel about themselves and their world rather than how effectively they may actually handle themselves in the world (p. 466).

The inclusion of the personality construct NA is to control for those individuals who have an inherently negative disposition, regardless of situation, and thus have the potential to decrease a positive relationship between work success and well-being.

- Hypothesis 5a:** The incremental change in Well-Being will be greater per unit change in Work Success for people who are low in Negative Affectivity than for those for whom Negative Affectivity is high, controlling for Congruency.
- Hypothesis 5b:** The incremental change in Well-Being will be greater per unit change in Congruency for people who are low in Negative Affectivity than for those for whom Negative Affectivity is high, controlling for Work Success.
- Hypothesis 5c:** The incremental change in Well-Being will be greater per unit change in the interaction between Work Success and Congruency for people who are low in Negative Affectivity than for those for whom Negative Affectivity is high.
- Hypothesis 5d:** The relationships proposed in Hypotheses 5a, 5b, and 5c will not differ across different sets of work values.

### Work Role Salience

Work Role Salience is defined by Greenhaus (1970) as the importance of work in one's total life. WRS exists when a person commits time and energy in planning, developing, and succeeding in a career. The work a person does becomes integral in how the person views him/herself.

Greenhaus, et al, (1987) discovered that for accountants who were high in WRS, work success was associated with marital problems and low quality of life when little time was devoted to work roles. Quality of life was high and marital problems were scarce when commitment to work and time invested in work were high. These results suggest that the presence of WRS can have a significant impact on well-being.

**Hypothesis 6a: The incremental change in Well-Being will be greater per unit change in Work Success for people who are high in Work Role Salience than for those for whom Work Role Salience is low, controlling for Congruency.**

**Hypothesis 6b: The incremental change in Well-Being will be greater per unit change in Congruency for people who are high in Work Role Salience than for those for whom Work Role Salience is low, controlling for Work Success.**

**Hypothesis 6c: The incremental change in Well-Being will be greater per unit change in the interaction between Work Success and Congruency for people who are high in Work Role Salience than for those for whom Work Role Salience is low.**

**Hypothesis 6d: The relationships proposed in Hypotheses 6a, 6b, and 6c will not differ across different sets of work values.**

## Methodology

### MEASURES

#### Independent Variables: Work Success and Congruency

Work success was measured in three ways. First, demographic items asked respondents for their job title, personal income and the number of promotions in the past ten years. This operationalization reflects an objective conceptualization of work success. The next work success indicator asked respondents whether they perceive themselves to be successful at work. The final work success indicators ask the respondent's significant others whether they perceive the respondent to be successful at work. All of these perceptual indicators reflect a subjective operationalization of work success. These items consist of a single question with a five point response category ranging from 1-"not at all successful" to 5-"extremely successful".

Congruency was measured by assessing the respondent's ideal and obtained work-values. An adaptation of Derr's (1986) "Career Success Inventory" was employed for this purpose. It consists of thirty items in a forced choice format. Each response choice is coded in accordance with one of five possible "career success orientations" or work-value categories.

An item analysis of the work value measure was performed prior to the pilot study. Ten experts were provided with a description of each work-value category, their codes, and a scale that did not have the response choices coded. The experts were asked to code each response choice to reflect the work-value category that they felt the item represented. The experts were also asked to identify items that they thought were difficult to categorize into a specific work-value category.

Upon completion of this analysis each item code was tabulated, as were the items that were difficult to categorize. Any item that did not achieve 80% concurrence among experts was further analyzed as to which categories the item was coded to reflect. The syntax of these items was changed to reflect the intended category more clearly.

The measure appears in the survey as two identical scales; one asks respondents to "select the statement that more accurately reflects your ideal work situation", and the other asks respondents to "select the statement that more accurately reflects your actual work situation". The absence of a significant difference between a respondent's selection of work value categories on these two scales infers that congruency exists. A significant difference in response among the work value alternatives of these scales infers that an incongruency exists.

Moderator Variables: Gender, Negative Affectivity, and Work Role Salience

Gender was determined by a question in the demographic section of the survey. The Negative Affectivity personality trait was assessed using the "PANAS" (Watson 1987). This measure is a twenty item adjective scale that reflects various emotions. Respondents were asked to indicate the degree to which they "generally experience these emotions". The scale employs a five point response format ranging from 1-"very slightly or not at all" to 5-"extremely".

The importance of work in a person's life was evaluated by the "Work Role Salience Scale"(Greenhaus 1970) . This measure has nineteen statements about work activities and beliefs. Respondents were asked to select the response that describes their feelings about work. The WRS utilizes a five point response format ranging from 1-"strongly agree" to 5-"strongly disagree".

Dependent Variable: Well-Being

Well-being was determined with both cognitive and affective scales. The cognitive scale was a short version of Campbell & Converse's (1976) "Quality of Life" survey. It consisted of seven items that ask respondents how satisfied they are with life in general and with specific life domains. A five point Likert scale ranging from 1-"not at all satisfied" to 5-"extremely satisfied" was employed.

Quinn's (1974) "Quality of Life Scale" was used to tap affective well-being. The scale is a seven point semantic differential that asks respondents to indicate how they feel about their lives.

Independent assessment of respondent well-being was also explored. Respondents were instructed to give a co-worker and their mate a five item scale that investigates these people's impressions concerning the respondent's well-being. These items referred to general well-being; two were cognitive and two were affective. The fifth item asked about the respondent's work success.

The survey ended with five questions that asked respondents about the questionnaire itself and what they thought the survey was attempting to investigate. Fifteen respondents were interviewed after completing the questionnaire to gain further insight into these issues. Responses to these questions are reported at the conclusion of this report.

## RESPONDENTS AND DATA COLLECTION

The surveys were distributed in one of two ways; either the respondent received a survey packet by mail, or the survey packet was personally delivered to the respondent. Each survey packet consisted of a cover letter, a questionnaire, two self-addressed stamped envelopes, and a stamped self-addressed manila envelope. The cover letter explained how the questionnaire was to be administered, guaranteed response confidentiality, and thanked the respondent for taking part in the study.

The survey included three sets of questionnaire data- one set was completed by the respondent, a second set was completed by the respondent's co-worker, and a third set was completed by the respondent's mate who was identified as "a person that is close to you in your personal life". Respondents were asked to give these scales to people who they felt could answer these questions easily.

Sixty surveys were distributed to people who were either employed in at least a managerial position, or who owned their own businesses. Data collection took place in May, June, and July, until thirty completed surveys were obtained. Of these thirty, twenty nine were used in data analysis. One survey was disqualified as an unusual number of scales were left blank. The sample consisted of people registered in an M.B.A. program at a northeastern state college, faculty members at the same college, and people in a variety of occupations who were solicited by the researcher.

## DATA ANALYSIS

### Descriptive Analysis

Frequency analysis was conducted to the demography of the sample. Frequency analyses were also conducted for the PANAS, Work Role Salience, cognitive well-being, affective well-being, co-worker well-being, and mate well-being scales in order to demonstrate response range.

Five work value scales were created by summing the identifying codes for each work value category. Frequencies reflecting the selection of each work value category for each scale were calculated. Then, crosstabulations were performed for each ideal work value scale by its obtained work value scale. These analyses were conducted to determine whether the total sample responded differently to the obtained and ideal work value scales.

### Correlational Analyses

One-tailed Pearson correlations were computed to establish the relationships between the independent variables; job title, number of promotions and income level, and the dependent variable measures.

One-tailed Pearson correlations were also conducted to assess the relationship between the independent variables; self-perceived work success, significant others perception of respondent work success, and the dependent variable scales.

One-tailed Pearson correlations were also computed between the moderator variables, negative affectivity and work role salience, and the dependent variable measures.

Difference scores were not computed to determine congruency in this analysis because of small sample size. However, one-tailed Pearson correlations were computed to determine the relationship between each ideal and obtained work value scale, and the respondent well-being scales.

## Results

### SAMPLE DEMOGRAPHICS

#### Personal

Of the twenty-nine respondents included in data analysis, thirteen are female and sixteen are male. Four respondents are single, five are cohabitating, seventeen are married, two are divorced, and one is widowed. Thirteen people have no children, three have one child, six have two children, four have three children, one has four children, and two have five children. Eight people live in an urban area, seventeen live in a suburban area, and four live in a rural area.

Nine respondents are 25-34, ten are 35-44, seven are 45-54, two are 55-65, and one is 65+ years old. Two respondents have a High School education, two have had 'Some College', three have an Associates degree, four have a Bachelors degree, eight have a Masters or M.B.A. degree, and ten have a Ph.D. or an equivalent degree.

#### Occupational

Two respondents manage restaurants, eight are professors, three are managers, three are health professionals, two are salespeople, four are engaged in administrative work, two are lawyers, one is involved with manufacturing operations, two are consultants, one performs public relations, and one is a clergyman.

These respondents work in a variety of industries. Two people are in food service, eight are in education, four are in health care, one is in manufacturing, one is in retail, one is in law, one is in insurance, two are in communications, three are in construction or landscaping, one is in finance, one is in product distribution, one is in public service, and one is engaged in religion.

These respondents may be classified according to five different job titles. Six own their own businesses, four are executive level, seven are in middle management positions,

one is a first line administrator, and eleven are in the middle of a three tier hierarchical system.

Fifteen of these respondents reported that they had experienced 0-1 promotions in the past ten years, eight reported 1-3 promotions, four reported 4-6 promotions, one reported 10+ promotions, and one respondent did not answer this question.

When asked "How many changes in work responsibilities have you had in the past ten years that have not involved a significant change in level or income?", nine people responded 0-1, fourteen responded 1-3, five responded 4-6, and one person did not respond at all.

Fourteen people indicated that they had changed their occupation 0-1 time, twelve indicated 1-3 times and two indicated 4-6 times. There was one missing response to this question. When asked how many times they had changed organizations in the past ten years, fifteen responded 0-1, seven responded 1-3, six respond 4-6, and one person did not answer this question.

The final demographic question asked respondents for their personal income (in thousands). Four people responded \$24-35, nine people responded \$36-45, six people responded \$46-55, three people responded \$56-75, three people responded \$76-99, and four people responded \$100+.

## SCALE FREQUENCIES

### Work Values

Work-value scales were constructed by identifying the item codes which reflect a specific work-value category, and counting them. The obtained frequencies represent the number of respondents who selected a specific work value category a certain number of times. Table B1 reports the frequency, in percent for each 'ideal' and 'obtained' scale. It is apparent that the popularity of a work value category is dependent on whether the respondent's choices are indicating their obtained or ideal work circumstance.

Table B1 Frequency Distribution for "Ideal" and "Actual" Work Value Scales.

Value	Percent									
	Ideal Ahead	Actual Ahead	Ideal Secure	Actual Secure	Ideal Free	Actual Free	Ideal High	Actual High	Ideal Balanced	Actual Balanced
0.00	3.4	0.0	10.3	3.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	3.4	0.0	0.0
1.00	0.0	6.9	6.9	6.9	0.0	3.4	0.0	3.4	3.4	6.9
2.00	27.6	17.2	10.3	20.7	6.9	3.4	3.4	6.9	0.0	0.0
3.00	31.0	17.2	10.3	10.3	10.3	0.0	10.3	13.8	6.9	13.8
4.00	13.8	17.2	6.9	13.8	6.9	3.4	6.9	10.3	0.0	0.0
5.00	13.8	17.2	13.8	10.3	6.9	27.6	6.9	0.0	6.9	6.9
6.00	3.4	6.9	20.7	10.3	13.8	13.8	6.9	27.6	3.4	17.2
7.00	3.4	13.8	17.2	6.9	13.8	10.3	20.7	13.8	20.7	10.3
8.00	0.0	3.4	3.4	3.4	10.3	20.7	20.7	13.8	6.9	13.8
9.00	3.4	0.0	0.0	3.4	17.2	10.3	24.1	3.4	10.3	0.0
10.00	0.0	0.0	0.0	10.3	6.9	6.9	0.0	0.0	24.1	13.8
11.00	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	6.9	0.0	0.0	3.4	13.8	17.2
12.00	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	3.4	0.0
Total	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

The ability of these scales to elicit different responses when subjects are asked to distinguish among their ideal and actual work situations is demonstrated. Cross tabulation analysis between ideal and actual work value scales concurs with this finding .

### Cognitive Well-Being

Table B2 presents the frequency analysis for the cognitive well-being scale. The maximum value achievable on this scale is forty which indicates 'high' well-being, while the minimum possible value is five and reflects 'low' well-being. The actual range on this scale was from seventeen to thirty-five. Twenty-six and thirty are the scale values with the greatest response frequency, otherwise response frequencies are evenly distributed across the value range.

Table B2 Frequency Distribution for the Cognitive Well-Being Scale.

<u>Value</u>	<u>Percent</u>
17.00	3.4
22.00	3.4
23.00	3.4
24.00	6.9
25.00	6.9
26.00	17.2
28.00	6.9
29.00	6.9
30.00	17.2
31.00	6.9
32.00	3.4
33.00	6.9
34.00	3.4
35.00	6.9
Total	100.00

Affective Well-being

Table B3 represents the response frequencies for the affective well-being scale. The maximum value for this scale is seventy and indicates 'high' well-being, and the minimum value is ten and indicates 'low' well-being. The actual value range on this scale is nineteen to sixty-seven. Response frequencies are distributed across the value range, with the exception of the fifty-four value which displays the highest frequency in response.

Table B3 Frequency Distribution for Affective Well-Being Scale.

<u>Value</u>	<u>Percent</u>
19.00	3.4
36.00	3.4
41.00	3.4
44.00	3.4
48.00	3.4
50.00	3.4
53.00	6.9
54.00	13.8
55.00	6.9
57.00	6.9
58.00	10.3
59.00	3.4
60.00	6.9
61.00	3.4
62.00	3.4
64.00	3.4
65.00	3.4
67.00	3.4
<u>Missing Data</u>	<u>6.9</u>
Total	100.00

Significant Others Assessment of Respondent Well-Being

Table B4 represents the response frequencies for the co-worker and mate well-being scales. A maximum value of twenty indicates 'high' well-being, and a minimum value of four indicates 'low' well-being. The obtained values range from seven to twenty. The dominant value is twelve on the co-worker scale, and sixteen on the mate scale.

Table B4 Frequency Distribution for The Co-Worker and Mate Well-being Scales.

<u>Value</u>	<u>Co-Worker</u>	<u>Mate</u>
7.00	3.4	3.4
9.00	0.0	3.4
10.00	3.4	13.8
11.00	6.9	3.4
12.00	24.1	17.2
13.00	17.2	17.2
14.00	13.8	17.2
15.00	3.4	0.0
16.00	6.9	20.7
17.00	6.9	0.0
18.00	3.4	3.4
20.00	6.9	3.4
<u>Missing Data</u>	<u>3.4</u>	<u>3.4</u>
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.00</b>	<b>100.00</b>

PANAS

Table B5 represents the response frequencies for the PANAS. This measure has twenty items that are scaled from 1 "not at all" to 5 "extremely". The potential response range is from 20-indicating low NA to 100-indicating high NA. The actual range of scores is from 43.00-75.00. This scale clearly demonstrates a range in response and there does not appear to be a dominant response value.

Table B5 Frequency Distribution for the Negative Affectivity Scale.

<u>Value</u>	<u>Percent</u>
43.00	3.4
44.00	3.4
48.00	3.4
49.00	6.9
50.00	6.9
51.00	3.4
52.00	6.9
53.00	10.3
54.00	6.9
57.00	6.9
59.00	3.4
60.00	6.9
61.00	3.4
62.00	3.4
63.00	3.4
64.00	3.4
67.00	6.9
75.00	3.4
<u>Missing Data</u>	<u>3.4</u>
Total	100.00

Work Role Salience Scale

Table B6 represents the response frequencies for the WRS Scale. The maximum possible value on this scale, indicating 'low' WRS is ninety-five and the minimum possible value, indicating 'high' WRS is nineteen. The actual value range is forty-six to eighty-two. The dominant scores are sixty-two, and sixty-seven. The frequency of response for the remaining respondents is distributed across the value range.

Table B6 Frequency Distribution for the Work Role Salience Scale.

<u>Value</u>	<u>Percent</u>
46.00	3.4
53.00	3.4
55.00	3.4
57.00	3.4
58.00	6.9
59.00	3.4
62.00	17.2
63.00	6.9
66.00	10.3
67.00	13.8
68.00	3.4
69.00	6.9
72.00	3.4
82.00	3.4
<u>Missing</u>	<u>10.3</u>
Total	100.00

### Perceived Work Success Item Frequencies

Table B7 represents the response frequencies to the questions concerning Perceived Work Success. The response values range from 1- "not at all" to 5- "extremely". The results to these items appears to vary among respondent, co-worker and mate.

**Table B7 Frequency Distribution of the Perceived Success Question for respondent and Significant Others.**

Value	Percent		
	Respondent	Co-Worker	Mate
1.00	0.0	0.0	0.0
2.00	6.9	0.0	3.4
3.00	34.5	17.2	20.7
4.00	34.5	51.7	48.3
5.00	24.1	27.6	24.1
Missing Data	0.0	3.4	3.4
Total	100.00	100.00	100.00

The differences between respondent, co-worker, and mate work success perceptions were also determined and are reported in Table B8.

**Table B8 Frequency Analysis of the Difference Between Self and Significant Others' Perception of Respondent Work Success.**

Value	Percent		
	Self/Co-Worker	Self/Mate	Co-Worker/Mate
-3.00	3.4	0.0	0.0
-2.00	3.4	6.9	3.4
-1.00	27.6	34.5	17.2
0.00	48.3	31.0	41.2
1.00	10.3	17.2	31.0
2.00	3.4	3.4	3.4
3.00	0.0	3.4	0.0
Missing Data	3.4	3.4	3.4
Total	100.00	100.00	100.00

Overall, Table P8 demonstrates that differences exist among respondent and significant others' perception of work success. The greatest similarity in perception is between the respondent and his/her co-worker. The greatest differences is between the respondent and his/her mate.

## CORRELATIONAL ANALYSES

### Work Success and Well-being

Respondents were asked to report their job title. Their responses were coded whereby low values indicate high organizational levels while high values indicate low organizational levels. This variable does not correlate significantly with any of the well-being measures. The only work success indicators that job title correlates with significantly are income level;  $r = -.411$ ,  $p < .015$ , and co-worker perception of respondent success  $r = -.365$ ,  $p < .028$ .

Number of promotions demonstrates a positive and significant correlation with the co-worker well-being scale  $r = .343$ ,  $p < .040$ . All other correlations with well-being measures are insignificant. Promotions do not correlate significantly with any work success indicators.

The significant correlates between income and well-being are with the co-worker well-being scale,  $r = -.028$ ,  $p < .444$ , self perceived work success,  $r = .427$ ,  $p < .012$  and job title. Responsibility changes correlates significantly with self perceived success  $r = -.453$ ,  $p < .008$  exclusively.

Overall, self-perceived correlates positively and significantly with the cognitive well-being scale  $r = .351$ ,  $p < .031$ . It also demonstrates significant relationships with responsibility changes and income level.

Co-worker assessment of respondent work success correlates significantly with the affective well-being scale,  $r = .355$ ,  $p < .037$  and the co-worker well-being scale,  $r = .483$ ,  $p < .005$ . Mate assessment of respondent work success correlates significantly with the affective well-being scale,  $r = .334$ ,  $p < .048$ , the co-worker well-being scale,  $r = .381$ ,  $p < .023$ ; and the mate well-being scale,  $r = .6504$ ,  $p < .000$ .

### Work Value Categories and Well-being

Each work value scale, both ideal and actual, was correlated with well-being to discover whether these scales would display different relationships. The correlations between the getting ahead scale and well-being were negative and insignificant for both the ideal and obtained measures. The getting secure scales do not significantly correlate with well-being. However, the ideal scale demonstrates negative correlations while the actual scale demonstrates positive correlations.

The getting free actual scale correlates significantly with cognitive well-being,  $r = -.312$ ,  $p < .050$ . Correlations with the other well-being measures demonstrate varied direction and are insignificant. The getting high scales did not correlate significantly with well-being. The getting balanced ideal scale correlated significantly with affective well-being alone,  $r = .3322$ ,  $p = .045$ .

### Moderator Variables and Well-Being

The relationship between gender and well-being was not determined because of the small sample size.

The PANAS consists of two independent dimensions; Positive Affect and Negative Affect. Each of these two subscales consists of ten items whereby ten is the low value and indicates "low" affectivity, and fifty is the high value and indicates "high" affectivity.

Hypotheses 5a-5c suggest that NA should correlate negatively with well-being. Research (Watson & Clark 1984) has demonstrated that high NA correlates negatively and high PA correlates positively with well-being. In order to test these relationships in a meaningful way, the PANAS was broken out into its two sub-scales, i.e., NA and PA, and each were correlated with well-being separately.

NA correlates negatively and significantly with the cognitive well-being scale,  $r = -.454$ ,  $p < .007$ ; and negatively and insignificantly with the affective well-being scale. NA also correlates negatively and significantly with the respondent's perception of work

success,  $r = -.405$ ,  $p < .015$ , and demonstrates a positive but nonsignificant relationship with significant others' perception of respondent work success.

PA correlates positively and significantly with the cognitive and affective well-being scale,  $r = .405$ ,  $p < .020$ . PA further demonstrates a significant, positive correlations with the respondent's perception of work success,  $r = .473$ ,  $p < .006$ , and with mate's perception of respondent work success,  $r = .352$ ,  $p < .036$ .

Hypotheses 6-6c generally suggest a positive correlation between Work Role Salience and well-being. The WRS Scale demonstrated positive but nonsignificant relationships with well-being measures and self-perceived success.

## Discussion

The purposes of this investigation were to determine whether the survey's scales are good indicators of the research variables, and whether the measures appear to demonstrate the relationships between variables as articulated in the hypotheses. This discussion will briefly comment as to the results of the scale frequency analyses, and then will focus on the correlational analyses for the independent, moderator and dependent variables.

### Frequency Analysis

The value range of the response frequencies for the questionnaire scales are distributed and suggest that their performance is sufficient. The frequency analysis and cross-tab analysis of the work value scales demonstrate that respondents do differentiate their work value preferences according to ideal and obtained situations. Thus, these scales may be good measures with which to determine congruency ( via difference scores) in the research forthcoming.

### Correlational Analysis

Overall, many of the correlations between independent, moderator and dependent variables are insignificant. This may be the result of sample size. However, the correlations, in most cases were in the posited direction.

The work success indicators; job title, number of promotions, and income demonstrate intermittent correlations with the well-being scales and perceived work success items. Except for income, these items correlate more strongly with the cognitive well-being scale than with the affective well-being scale, and more strongly with the co-worker well-being scale than with the mate well-being scale.

Perceived work success and job title and number of promotions demonstrates the strongest correlation with co-worker assessment of work success, followed by self-perceived work success, and demonstrates the weakest relationship with mate perception of

respondent work success. Income, on the other hand, strongly correlates with self-perceived work success, and co-worker perception of respondent work success, and moderately with mate perception of work success. This result may have been different if those who are self employed were excluded from this analysis.

Self-perceived work success demonstrates the strongest relationships with well-being and demonstrates a stronger relationship with co-worker assessment than with mate assessment of respondent work success.

These work success indicators in general correlate more strongly with co-worker perceptions than with mate perceptions of respondent well-being suggesting that the co-worker and the mate may evaluate respondent work success differently. Perceptual measures of work success may prove to be valuable in determining whether objective and subjective indicators of work success have different relationships with well-being. If this is discovered to be true, then conventional indicators of work success may require re-evaluation research to come.

The results of correlational analysis for the work value categories vary. For the getting ahead work value set, the relationship with the well-being scales for both the obtained and ideal versions is negative. The getting secure set demonstrates different results. For the ideal scale, correlations with the well-being measures are negative and weak. For the obtained scale however, the relationship with the cognitive well-being scale is negative and weak, while the correlation with the affective measure is positive and stronger. The getting free ideal scale demonstrates a significant positive relationship with the affective well-being scale and a slight relationship with the cognitive well-being scale. The results of the obtained scale reveal a significant negative relationship with the cognitive well-being scale and a weaker positive relationship with the affective well-being scale. For the getting balanced scale, the affective well-being measure demonstrates significant positive relationships with both the obtained and ideal scales. The cognitive well-being measures demonstrate weak relationships with both the obtained and ideal scales.

The variation in performance for the two well-being measures is an interesting result. A common pattern as to which measure, cognitive or affective, consistently results in stronger relationships for either the ideal or obtained scales is unclear. This may be due to sample size, or perhaps ideal and actual situations do influence well-being differently according to cognitive and affective dimensions.

The purpose of analyzing the ideal and obtained scales separately was to establish whether they have different relationships with well-being. If these scales do relate differently to well-being then they may perform well in establishing congruency and its impact on well-being in the study to come. Some variation in well-being relationships was found for the obtained and ideal scales. Perhaps these differences will be more significant when analysis is conducted on a larger sample. Overall, results from the cross-tab analysis and correlations suggest that employing ideal and obtained work value categories as one determinant of congruency may be successful in a large-scale study.

Results of the correlational analysis between Negative Affectivity and Positive Affectivity are encouraging. NA correlated negatively with both well-being scales, and significantly with the cognitive well-being scale and with the self-perceived work success item. PA correlated positively and significantly with both well-being scales and the self-perceived work success item. For the NA scale, significant others' perception of respondent work success did not concur with the respondent's assessment, further adding to the validity of this construct. The PA scale correlated positively with all perceived work success items as was expected. The results of these analyses substantiate the need to control for the presence of NA so that relationships between independent and dependent variables can be determined without the influence of NA.

The Work Role Salience Scale was correlated with the well-being scale and demonstrated positive insignificant relationships. Future analysis with this scale will divide results into high and low categories, however the results from this study indicate that the scale should work well as a moderator variable. The relationship between WRS and

perceived work success was negative and weak. This may suggest that when WRS is present, i.e., work is an important aspect of the person's life and self-concept, the person's well-being benefits from work success.

### **Recommendations for Questionnaire Changes**

This discussion is based on the results of the five evaluative questions that followed the survey, and on personal interviews with fifteen respondents. The results follow this discussion.

The question concerning survey completion time reveals that the survey takes approximately twenty minutes to complete, which was not considered excessive by respondents. However, when the survey was presented to a company president in an effort to gain access to his employees, his response was that the survey looked too long, and that he did not believe that his people would want to answer it. In response to this insight, the survey is being redesigned using a smaller font that prints clearly, and will be presented as two-sided copy. The co-worker and mate scales will be placed in self-addressed stamped envelopes and will not be attached to the respondent questionnaire. These alterations should result in the survey appearing shorter and more professional.

The question concerning answer pressures reveals that some respondents found it difficult to choose between the paired choices offered in the scales regarding ideal and obtained work values. Some of these respondents were interviewed after they had completed the survey. When the researcher explained the purposes of the scales in question they were more comfortable with the need to choose among competing alternatives, except for one respondent who is an attorney by profession.

While these two scales seemed to have the majority of problematic comments, the nature of the measures and the issues that they raise cannot be avoided. At this point, I do not think that the scales should be altered. The decision to alter them should be determined by a factor analysis of the results from the actual study's sample.

These scales may elicit less negative reactions if the instructions that precede them are clearer as to how the choice process should be conducted. A sentence can be added that recognizes the possibility that both choices may be appealing, and that the respondent should select the alternative which clearly reflects the person's ideal or actual decision-making in their work situation. It can also be pointed out that selecting one alternative does not infer that the other cannot co-exist, and that what is at issue is which of the alternatives, in the 'ideal' case is the most salient, and in the 'obtained' case, which choice is the most descriptive of the person's work situation. Perhaps these types of qualifiers will elicit less frustration on the respondent's part.

The question which asks respondents about their personal income should be re-worded to specify total personal income. Some respondents also commented that the question concerning occupation did not allow respondents the opportunity to include part-time employment. Perhaps this item should be re-written to allow for the inclusion of more than one occupational descriptor.

While some respondents thought that the survey dealt with life satisfaction, not one picked up on the essence of the research questions. Thus, the content of the survey appears to be discrete, and should not elicit desirable responses on the part of respondents.

### **Conclusion**

The questionnaire concerning "The Impact of Work Success and Congruency on Well-being" was analyzed. The questionnaire's scales were found to be adequate indicators of the concepts they are employed to reflect. Correlation analyses further indicate that the measures and items relate to the dependent variable in agreement with what the hypotheses predict. However, the inclusion of both cognitive and affective measures of well-being requires careful consideration as their behavior in this pilot study varied to a large extent.

The wording of the income and occupation questions requires alteration, and the instructions for the work value ideal and obtained scales require embellishment. Otherwise, the survey should perform well in testing the study's hypotheses in the large scale study forthcoming.

### Results of Survey Evaluation Questions

The twenty-five respondents who answered the evaluative questions and the fifteen respondents who were personally interviewed serve as the basis of this analysis.

#### 1. How do you feel about the length of the survey?

Twenty-three respondents felt that the survey was not too long, and two responded that it was too long. Interviews revealed that the average survey completion time is between twenty and twenty-five minutes. One of the respondents who felt that the survey was long reported that it took forty-five minutes to complete.

One of the respondents who was interviewed after he had completed the survey remarked that although the survey took him thirty minutes to complete he did not feel that the time was excessive, and he thought that the questions were introspective. He further commented that he knew other professionals who had expressed an interest in participating in the study.

#### 2. Was the language difficult to understand?

Twenty-two respondents indicated that the language was not difficult. Of those three who provided comments regarding language, one thought that the questions in the scales concerning perceived ideal and obtained work values were not specific enough and thus made it difficult to select one of the two alternatives provided. Another respondent felt that these same scales provided two alternatives that were both appealing "Why can't one have both" was a comment made specifically about item 18:

- An opportunity to control my work circumstance.
- An opportunity to not let work interfere with the needs of my family.

The third respondent commented that the question regarding income did not specify whether investment income was to be considered when selecting a response category.

### 3. Did you feel pressured to answer in a particular way?

Sixteen respondents felt no pressure to respond in a particular way. The majority of comments offered referred to the scales assessing perceived ideal and obtained work values.

-Two respondents indicated that they "did not want to answer either way".

\_Two other respondents said that both choices applied to them and thus their answers reflected their attitude at that time.

\_One respondent commented that in regard to questions 17,18 and 22, "makes you feel like a bad guy if work comes first so you answer that the family comes first".

\_Another respondent felt that the questions in these two scales had a bias to connect success with aggressive, political behavior. This person claims that he answered honestly "although I felt that I contradicted myself in a couple of places (because I wanted the best of both worlds)".

\_A female respondent remarked that " I felt you wanted to validate womens' being ambivalent about the work process, about balancing getting ahead with feelings about family".

\_ One person remarked that there was no provision in the question dealing with employment for part time work,e.g. consulting. This same person also made remarks concerning the scales mentioned previously; "can't someone be both expert and leader?" and "aren't freedom and balanced compatible?".

### 4. Were any of the items ambiguous?

Seventeen respondents answered no to this question. As with the previous question two respondents claimed that at times it was "difficult to choose between competing statements because both were true".

\_ One person said that responding to the scale where they had to choose between descriptors such as "nervous" vs "strong" (this is from the affect scale that assesses well-being), made them upset. On the other hand, a different person said that they liked answering this particular scale. A third person referred to this scale and remarked that it " wasn't ambiguous but difficult to respond to consistently without thinking of specific instances". This person went on to question the scale's validity.

\_One respondent also commented that personal income was not clearly defined in the demographic section, and that there also was not a provision to answer that his household had two sets of children.

\_In reference to the demographic section one person asked "what constitutes a promotion and changes in work responsibility?". Furthermore this person wanted the terms "freedom" and "political skills" defined.

#### 5. What do you think this survey is about?

Eight people did not respond to this question.

\_Three people thought that this survey was investigating job satisfaction and life satisfaction.

\_Two people thought the issue was "the degree of conflict between ideal and reality and values about work".

\_ One person answered "work life and its impact on well-being or the reverse".

\_Two people said the " degree of conflict between ideal and real work situations". (One of these people also remarked "numerous other questions can be answered by these data".

This particular respondent is a consultant.)

\_Two people responded "the degree of balance between work and personal life and how it motivates a respondent in a work setting".

\_One person said "how one perceives their job and its importance".

\_ One respondent answered "the correlation between job satisfaction and personal satisfaction and lifestyles".

\_ A member of the clergy answered "life goals and achievement". This person also was "grateful for the opportunity to think about these issues".

\_ One person said "to determine goal orientation, 'who is and who isn't'".

\_ A respondent answered "an attempt to determine if individuals are satisfied and comfortable in the positions they occupy".

\_ One respondent thought "the conflicts that arise when career-minded people have to make personal sacrifices to get ahead professionally. Where are the limits to personal satisfaction and well-being".

\_ One person said "determining an equilibrium point at which an employee's needs and ideals are matched or met by the employer which would lead to a balance of a professional and non-professional atmosphere".

\_ One person thought that the issue was to determine work attitudes.

**APPENDIX C: SAMPLE REQUEST**

Hello. I am Helen Rothberg, a doctoral candidate in the City University Graduate Center at the Baruch College campus. I am pursuing a Ph.D. in Business, specializing in Organization and Policy Studies. I am presently working on a dissertation entitled "The Impact of Work Success and Congruency on Well-Being". Well-Being is defined as satisfaction and happiness with various life domains. Other pertinent terms will be defined later in this presentation. The essence of this study addresses the following research questions:

- What is the effect of achieving Work success on Well-Being?
- If people have a set of work-values, and work in a setting that satisfies a different set of work-values, will their Well-Being be affected?
- Are there individual differences that may moderate the relationship between Work Success, Congruent Work Values, and Well-Being?

The basic purpose of this research is to attempt to explain why some successful people are discontented while others are satisfied and happy. One hypothesis to be explored suggests that Well-Being is affected by the absence or presence of Congruency, i.e; a match between the person and his/her work environment. Although success may independently affect Well-Being, this influence is posited to be positive only when congruency exists. The implications of this hypothesis suggest that personal work-values and setting work-values require exploration if this match is to be achieved. I would therefore prefer to test this hypothesis on a large group of middle and upper-level executives who work in a variety of functional areas. Your organization is ideal for this activity.

**The Application of Work-Value Orientations and Work-Value Settings to Organizations**

Employee behavior is a result of a variety of motives and value orientations towards work. With the presence of such personal diversity, how can a manager supervise in a way that will be motivating and rewarding for the majority of his/her employees? How can an organization attract, select, develop, and retain valuable employees, especially at the middle manager and executive levels? Losing employees at this stage is not cost effective nor productive as the organization has invested time and money in developing these people. How can a company enhance the Well-Being of its personnel and consequently enhance productivity? An understanding of the work-value orientations of employees can assist in developing corporate and human resource management policies that will serve to attract, retain, and motivate talented, competent and loyal corporate citizens. The following discussion highlights some of the applications of work-values in organization life.

Compensation packages can be structured in many ways. In order for these packages to serve as rewards and thus be motivating, identification of worker value orientations is recommended. An understanding of work-values can facilitate in determining the optimum combination of raises, perks, benefits, and other compensatory options. For instance; "Getting Secure " people seem to prefer increased benefits while "Getting Ahead" people prefer highly visible achievement documentations.

One of the most difficult organizational decisions is whom to promote or "select in" as middle and upper level managers. Some work-value orientations result in workers who strive for highly visible promotions while other orientations result in workers who prefer not to be promoted into managerial levels that are characteristically more administrative and less hands on. Identifying each type of worker before hand can assist in selecting the person who has not only the best skills and talents but who also has the motivation to serve in such an organizational role.

The work-value orientations of subordinates are another bit of information that can be used when making supervisory decisions. The work-value orientations of subordinates will not only influence how well people work together and approach project assignments,

but will also impact how they interact with supervisors. Certain work-value orientations make for better supervisors while other orientations make for better subordinates.

People also vary in their preferences for different organizational policies. For instance, "Getting Balanced" people may prefer such options as on-site day care programs, flexi-time, and home workstations. A "Getting High" person on the other hand may prefer company sponsored skill enhancing and skill acquisition seminars.

The applications of the work-value concept to corporate decision-making are numerous. The goal is to achieve a person-environment fit or congruency whereby the right person is not only working in the right capacity for the right organization, but is working in a setting that can also promote personal Well-Being.

#### Position Statement

The survey takes about twenty minutes to complete. There are two additional five question scales that the respondent gives to a peer at work and a significant other in non-work life to fill out. Self-addressed stamped envelopes will be attached to the survey and to each of the additional scales. All survey material will be sent to Helen Rothberg, in care of my committee chairman, Dr. Abraham Korman, distinguished Wollman Professor in Management at Baruch College. At the time of survey administration it will already have undergone content validation and pre-testing. The survey does not have to be filled out during company time.

In return for your assistance I will present an overview of the results, and its implications for your organization. An analysis of the information that you have provided will be translated into specific recommendations.

It is with the above thoughts in mind that I respectfully request your response, and thank you, in advance, for your time and consideration.

APPENDIX D:

QUESTIONNAIRE SCALE CORRELATION MATRIX

ITEM-SCALE CORRELATION MATRIX

**Table D1. Pearson Correlations Among Questionnaire Scales.**

Well-Being:	Affective	Cognitive	General		Co-Worker	Mate
			Cognitive	Affective		
Cognitive Well-Being	.6242***					
General Cognitive W.B.	.5987***	.6503***				
General Affective W.B.	.5831***	.7101***	.6942***			
Co-Worker Well-Being	.3874***	.3219***	.3752***	.3355***		
Mate Well-Being	.4402***	.4299***	.3699***	.3850***	.3481***	
Congruency	-.1654**	-.2190***	-.3116***	-.2604***	-.0541	-.1010
Work Role Salience	.2196***	.2233***	.1227**	.1889***	-.0188	.0298
Negative Affectivity	-.2858***	-.2894***	-.3167***	-.3957***	-.1486**	-.2571***
Getting Ahead-Ideal	-.0792	-.1303**	-.1058*	-.0885	-.0648	.0173
Getting Secure-Ideal	-.1351**	-.0735	-.1616**	-.1034*	-.0450	-.0391
Getting Free-Ideal	.0833	.0871	.1759***	.1542**	.0336	.0146
Getting High-Ideal	.0710	-.0514	-.0125	-.0536	.0090	.0781
Getting Balanced-Ideal	.0800	.1624**	.0947*	.0878	.0684	-.0487
Getting Ahead-Actual	-.0697	-.1566**	-.1183*	-.1231*	-.0419	.0215
Getting Secure-Actual	-.1750***	-.0930*	-.2290***	-.1155*	.0364	-.0721
Getting Free-Actual	.0119	-.1078*	-.0661	-.0621	-.0255	-.0737
Getting High-Actual	.1559**	.0949	.1871***	.0608	.1587**	.2102***
Getting Balanced-Actual	.1032*	.2120***	.1625**	.1745	-.0401	-.0042

	Work Role Congruency	Work Role Saliency	Negative Affectivity	Getting Ahead I.	Getting Secure I.	Getting Free I.	Getting High I.	Getting Balanced I.
Work Role Saliency	-.0987*							
Negative Affectivity	.1809***	-.1123*						
Getting Ahead-Ideal	.1379**	-.2539***	.0176					
Getting Secure-Ideal	-.0395	-.0447	.0907*	-.2644***				
Getting Free-Ideal	-.1252*	.0828	-.0640	-.1059*	-.4312***			
Getting High-Ideal	.0259	-.0411	.0579	-.1276*	-.2360***	-.2446***		
Getting Balanced-Ideal	-.0036	.2479***	-.0545	-.4744***	-.0710	-.1755***	-.3543***	
Getting Ahead-Actual	.2680***	-.2359***	.1127*	.4674***	.0072	-.1395**	-.0290	-.2915***
Getting Secure-Actual	.3326***	-.0355	.1368**	-.0798	.3796***	-.3482***	-.0149	.0763
Getting Free-Actual	-.0897	-.0098	.0121	-.0840	-.1395**	-.1790***	.4948***	-.1330**
Getting High-Actual	-.0667	-.1729***	.0718	.0043	-.1720***	-.1162*	.5431***	-.2446***
Getting Balanced-A.	-.3240***	.3431***	-.1466**	-.2260***	-.0284	.0575	-.2476***	.4150***

\* p < .05 \*\* p < .01 \*\*\* p < .001

Respondent N=330 Co-Worker N= 293 Mate N=280

Table D2. Questionnaire Scale and Item Pearson Correlations

**Well-Being Cognitive**

Satisfaction With:	<u>Intimacy</u>	<u>Friends</u>	<u>Health</u>	<u>Leisure</u>	<u>Work</u>	<u>Non-Work Life</u>
	.738***	.638***	.482***	.765***	.430***	.801***

**Well-Being Affective<sup>a</sup>**

Life Feelings:	<u>Boring/ Interesting</u>	<u>Miserable/ Enjoyable</u>	<u>Useless/ Worthwhile</u>	<u>Lonely/ Friendly</u>	<u>Empty/ Full</u>	<u>Discouraging/ Hopeful</u>
	.720***	.766***	.748***	.749***	.803***	.797***
	<u>Disappointing/ Rewarding</u>	<u>No Chance/ Brings my Best</u>	<u>Hard/ Easy</u>	<u>Tied Down/ Free</u>		
	.802***	.798***	.465***	.548***		

**Significant Other Well-Being Assessment**

Perception of Respondent:	<u>Overall Life Satisfaction</u>	<u>Non-Work Life Satisfaction</u>	<u>Work Life Satisfaction</u>	<u>Overall Life Enjoyment</u>
Co-Worker	.804***	.794***	.694***	.776***
Mate	.800***	.764***	.711***	.797***

**Negative Affectivity**

Average Feelings:	<u>Distressed</u>	<u>Upset</u>	<u>Guilty</u>	<u>Scared</u>	<u>Hostile</u>	<u>Irritable</u>	<u>Ashamed</u>	<u>Nervous</u>	<u>Jittery</u>	<u>Afraid</u>
	.688***	.711***	.547***	.682***	.598***	.689***	.504***	.737***	.724***	.666***

**Work Role Salience****IMPORTANCE OF WORK DIMENSION<sup>b</sup>**

Job/ Family	Work/ Life	Job/ Freedom	Enjoy Work/ Satisfaction	Sacrifice/ Promotion	Happiness/ Success	Job/ Friends	Job/ Activity	Job/ Family	Job/ Society	Career/ Relocate
.691***	.275**	.722***	.429***	.687***	.596***	.766***	.789***	.590***	.026	.412***

**ATTITUDE TOWARD WORK DIMENSION<sup>c</sup>**

Leisure/ Success	Work Satisfaction	Work is Money	Necessary Evil	Work as Expression	Career Minded	Forget Work in Evenings	Work is Distasteful
-.397***	.359***	-.525***	-.532***	.341***	.562***	-.409***	-.352***

**Work Value Orientation Scale<sup>d</sup>**

	IDEAL		ACTUAL	
	<u>Ahead</u>	<u>Free</u>	<u>Ahead</u>	<u>Free</u>
Organize self and others to win Do own thing in organization	-.335***	.356***	-.339***	.489***
Balance between leisure & relationships Subordinate needs to get ahead	<u>Balanced</u> .404***	<u>Ahead</u> -.238***	<u>Balanced</u> .612***	<u>Ahead</u> -.416***
Reward hard work, loyalty, competence Set own goals accomplish own way	<u>Secure</u> -.336***	<u>Free</u> .5097***	<u>Secure</u> -.401***	<u>Free</u> .550***

Be aggressive and use political skills	<u>Ahead</u>	<u>Balanced</u>	<u>Ahead</u>	<u>Balanced</u>
Perspective between work and family	-.414***	.477***	-.527***	.584***
Work independently	<u>Free</u>	<u>Secure</u>	<u>Free</u>	<u>Secure</u>
Have place in stable organization	.483***	-.456***	.428***	-.510***
Expert and troubleshooter	<u>High</u>	<u>Ahead</u>	<u>High</u>	<u>Ahead</u>
Leader and achieve results	.433***	-.292***	.320***	-.337***
Spouse and career get equal time	<u>Balanced</u>	<u>High</u>	<u>Balanced</u>	<u>High</u>
Exciting projects	-.504***	.262***	-.491***	.384***
Freedom	<u>Free</u>	<u>Balanced</u>	<u>Free</u>	<u>Balanced</u>
Balance between work & nonwork	-.390***	.430***	-.367***	.369***
Competent, loyal, trustworthy	<u>Secure</u>	<u>Ahead</u>	<u>Secure</u>	<u>Ahead</u>
Politically skillful, lead, administer	.380***	-.427***	.264***	-.346***
Self-reliant	<u>Free</u>	<u>Balanced</u>	<u>Free</u>	<u>Balanced</u>
Flexible with schedule	-.264***	.326***	-.308***	.267***
Engaged in exciting work	<u>High</u>	<u>Free</u>	<u>High</u>	<u>Free</u>
Be own boss	.471***	-.486***	.419***	-.490***
Balance between work & family	<u>Balanced</u>	<u>High</u>	<u>Balanced</u>	<u>High</u>
Adventurous & competitive	-.573***	.452***	-.568***	.450***
Self-reliant & self-sufficient	<u>Free</u>	<u>High</u>	<u>Free</u>	<u>High</u>
Imaginative & enthused	-.344***	.557***	-.308***	.461***
Stable & tenacious	<u>Secure</u>	<u>Free</u>	<u>Secure</u>	<u>Free</u>
Independent & self-directed	-.417***	.421***	-.505***	.446***
Plan & organize own purpose	<u>Ahead</u>	<u>High</u>	<u>Ahead</u>	<u>High</u>
Analyze and creative solutions	-.216***	.457***	-.217***	.455***
Acquire expertise	<u>High</u>	<u>Secure</u>	<u>High</u>	<u>Secure</u>
Solid citizen	.339***	-.312***	.411***	-.361***
Organization goals before own	<u>Secure</u>	<u>Balanced</u>	<u>Secure</u>	<u>Balanced</u>
Fulfill both organization & own goals	-.201***	.222***	-.236***	.455***
Control work circumstance	<u>Free</u>	<u>Balanced</u>	<u>Free</u>	<u>Balanced</u>
Family needs above work	-.203**	.438***	-.321***	.465***
Promotions	<u>Ahead</u>	<u>High</u>	<u>Ahead</u>	<u>High</u>
Challenging problems & tasks	-.393***	.257***	-.281***	.215***
Center of power	<u>Ahead</u>	<u>Secure</u>	<u>Ahead</u>	<u>Secure</u>
Long-term employment	-.542***	.521***	-.404***	.488***
Know people for advancement	<u>Ahead</u>	<u>Free</u>	<u>Ahead</u>	<u>Free</u>
Develop career along own interest	-.437***	.198**	-.434***	.303***
Balance between work & private life	<u>Balanced</u>	<u>Secure</u>	<u>Balance</u>	<u>Secure</u>
Stability, benefits & job security	.427***	-.481***	.459***	-.443***

Self control & autonomy	<u>Free</u>	<u>Ahead</u>	<u>Free</u>	<u>Ahead</u>
Central to power structure	.375***	-.416***	.367***	-.263***
Stability & job security	<u>Secure</u>	<u>Free</u>	<u>Secure</u>	<u>Free</u>
Promotions	.350***	-.494***	.237***	-.402***
Financial success & power	<u>Ahead</u>	<u>Balanced</u>	<u>Ahead</u>	<u>Balanced</u>
Balance work, family & self	-.612***	.532***	-.522***	
.594***				
Professional development	<u>High</u>	<u>Free</u>	<u>High</u>	<u>Free</u>
Development for independence	.229***	-.396***	.198*	-.311***
Balance personal & professional life	<u>Balanced</u>	<u>High</u>	<u>Balance</u>	<u>High</u>
Excitement & stimulation	-.562***	.483***	-.598***	.570***
Expertise	<u>High</u>	<u>Secure</u>	<u>High</u>	<u>Secure</u>
Dependable & loyal	.305***	-.445***	.381***	-.464***
Manage people long term	<u>Secure</u>	<u>High</u>	<u>Secure</u>	<u>High</u>
Manage task force & projects	-.302***	.351***	-.314***	.289***
Security & belonging	<u>Secure</u>	<u>Balanced</u>	<u>Secure</u>	<u>Balanced</u>
Family & personal activity	-.439***	.429***	-.437***	.517***

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

a The affective well-being scale presents respondents with a semantic differential.

b These questions consist of statements that present two alternatives, which are abbreviated here.

c These questions present attitudes which are abbreviated here. Items with negative correlations were scored in reverse in data analyses.

d These scales employ forced choice format. The items are abbreviated here. Each item reflects a different value set. They are indicated by letters that the respondent selects. Thus for each item there are two possible outcomes. Each identifying letter was assigned a number for analytical purposes. The number codes do not reflect a value difference, they only indicate work value choice. Negative correlations do not indicate an adverse relationship. Instead they indicate that in the question, the letter that represents one value choice was scored with a lower number than the letter representing the competing value choice.

**APPENDIX E: PARAMETRIC HYPOTHESES TESTS**

Table E1. Summary Results of: Zero Order Correlations Between Work Success and Well-Being and Partial Correlations When Controlling For Congruency. (Hypothesis 1)

Variable\Well-Being	General				Co-Worker Mate
	Affective	Cognitive	Affective	Cognitive	
<b>Zero Order Correlations</b>					
Perceived Success	.444**	.387**	.478**	.544**	.3359*** .311***
<b>Partial Correlations Controlling for Congruency</b>					
Perceived Success	.423**	.351**	.440**	.503**	.328*** .312***
Insignificant variables: job title, # promotions, # responsibility changes, income level.					
* p < .05 ** p < .01 *** p < .001					

Table E2. Summary Results of: Significant Zero Order Correlations Between Congruency and Well-Being and Partial Correlations When Controlling for Work Success.^ (Hypothesis 2)

Variable\Well-Being	Affective	Cognitive	General	
			Cognitive	Affective
<b>Zero Order Correlations</b>				
Congruency	-.165*	-.226**	-.315**	-.263**
<b>Partial Correlations Controlling for:</b>				
Perceived Success		-.160*	-.243**	-.186*
Job Title	-.165*	-.224**	-.311**	-.262**
# Promotions	-.167*	-.230**	-.315**	-.262**
Responsibility	-.163*	-.249**	-.318**	-.265**
Income Level	-.168*	-.226**	-.319**	-.266**
* p < .05 ** p < .01 *** p < .001				
^ There were no significant correlations between significant other perception of respondent well-being and congruency.				

Table E3. Summary Results for Females and Males of Significant Zero Order Correlations Between Work Success and Well Being and Partial Correlations When Controlling for Work Success Across Congruency Levels. (Hypothesis 4)

<u>Perceived Success/</u>	<u>WB.Affective</u>	<u>WB.Cognitive</u>	<u>General WB.Cognitive</u>	<u>General WB.Affective</u>
<b>Zero Order Correlations</b>				
Females	.365***		.486***	.382***
Males	.513***	.523***	.584***	.552***
<b>Partial Correlations</b>				
Females	.314**		.433***	.325***
Males	.517***	.506***	.560***	.529***

Insignificant variables: Job Title, # Promotions, # Responsibility Changes, Income Level

\*p < .05 \*\* p < .01 \*\*\* p < .001

Table E4. Summary Results for Females and Males of: Significant Zero Order Correlations Between Congruency and Well-Being, and Partial Correlations When Controlling for Work Success, Across Work Success Levels. (Hypothesis 4)

<u>Congruency/</u>	<u>WB. Affective</u>	<u>WB. Cognitive</u>	<u>General WB. Cognitive</u>	<u>General WB. Affective</u>
<b>Zero Order Correlations</b>				
Females	-.306**	-.321**	-.483***	-.357***
Males	—	—	-.219**	—
<b>Partial Correlations</b>				
<b><u>Perceived Success</u></b>				
Females	—	-.283**	-.428***	-.294**
Males	—	—	—	—
<b><u>Job Title</u></b>				
Females	-.290**	-.305**	-.475***	-.345***
Males	—	—	-.222**	-.209**
<b><u># Promotions</u></b>				
Females	-.309**	-.323**	-.484***	-.357***
Males	—	—	-.220**	—
<b><u>Responsibility Change</u></b>				
Females	-.310**	-.321**	-.486***	-.360***
Males	—	—	-.225**	-.226**
<b><u>Income</u></b>				
Females	-.308**	-.299**	-.499***	-.363***
Males	—	—	-.209**	—

\* p < .05 \*\* p < .01 \*\*\* p < .001

Table E5. Summary Results of: Significant Zero Order Correlations Between Work Success and Well-Being, Partial Correlations when controlling for Congruency Across Three Levels of Negative Affectivity. (Hypothesis 6a)

<u>Perceived Success</u>	<u>W.B. Affective</u>	<u>W.B. Cognitive</u>	<u>General W.B. Cognitive</u>	<u>General W.B. Affective</u>
<b>Low Negative Affectivity</b>				
Zero Order Correlations	.530***	.446***	.557***	.395***
Partial Correlations	.532***	.477***	.557***	.413***
<b>Medium Negative Affectivity</b>				
<u>Perceived Success</u>				
Zero Order Correlations	—	—	.322**	.442***
Partial Correlations	—	—	.323**	.442***
<b>High Negative Affectivity</b>				
<u># Promotions</u>				
Zero Order Correlations	—	—	-.355**	—
Partial Correlations	—	—	—	—
<u>Perceived Success</u>				
Zero Order Correlations	—	.391**	.605***	.581***
Partial Correlations	—	.351**	.524***	.509***

Insignificant Variables: Job Title, # Responsibility Changes, Income Level

\* p < .05 \*\* p < .01 \*\*\* p < .001

Table E6. Summary Results of Significant: Zero Order and Pearson Correlations When Controlling for Work Success Across Three Levels of Negative Affectivity. (Hypothesis 6b)

<u>Congruency</u>	<u>W.B. Affective</u>	<u>W.B. Cognitive</u>	<u>General W.B. Cognitive</u>	<u>General W.B. Affective</u>
<b>High Negative Affectivity<sup>^</sup></b>				
Zero Order Correlations	—	-.286**	-.404***	-.349***
Partial Correlations	—	—	—	—
Perceived Success	—	—	-.3481**	-.2844**
Job Title	—	-.279**	-.393***	-.344**
# Promotions	—	-.281**	-.353***	-.321**
Responsibility	—	-.283**	-.395***	-.341**
Income	—	-.274**	-.409***	-.351***

\* p < .05 \*\* p < .01 \*\*\* p < .001

<sup>^</sup> This is the only level of Negative Affectivity for which there were significant correlations.

Table E7. Summary Results of: Significant Zero Order and Partial Correlations Between Work Success and Well-Being Controlling for Congruency Across Work Role Salience Levels. (Hypothesis 7a)

<u>Work Success/</u>	<u>W.B. Affective</u>	<u>W.B. Cognitive</u>	<u>General W.B. Cognitive</u>	<u>General W.B. Affective</u>
<b>Low Work Role Salience</b>				
<u>Perceived Success</u>				
Zero Order Correlations	.554***	.481***	.586***	.571***
Partial Correlations	.565***	.476***	.595**	.564***
<b>Medium-Low Work Role Salience</b>				
<u>Perceived Success</u>				
Zero Order Correlations	.481***	—	.559***	.523***
Partial Correlations	.389***	—	.465***	.435***
<b>Medium-High Work Role Salience</b>				
<u>Perceived Success</u>				
Zero Order Correlations	.535***	.343**	.328**	.365**
Partial Correlations	.528***	.340**	—	.364**
<b>High Work Role Salience</b>				
<u>Perceived Success</u>				
Zero Order Correlations	.316**	.470***	.621***	.448***
Partial Correlations	—	.386**	.553***	.374**
<u>Insignificant Variables: Job Title, # Promotions, # Responsibility Changes, Income Level</u>				
* p < .05 ** p < .01 *** p < .001				

Table E8. Summary Results of: Zero Order and Partial Correlations When Controlling for  
Work Success Across Work Role Salience Levels. (Hypothesis 7b)

Congruency	W.B. Affective	W.B. Cognitive	General W.B. Cognitive	General W.B. Affective
<b>Medium-Low Work Role Salience<sup>^</sup></b>				
Zero Order Correlations	—	—	-.365***	-.358**
Partial Correlations				
Job Title	—	—	-.332**	-.321**
# Promotions	—	—	-.366***	-.358**
Responsibility	—	—	-.372***	-.356**
Income	—	—	-.417***	-.415***
<b>Medium-High Work Role Salience</b>				
Zero Order Correlations	—	-.297**	-.463***	—
Partial Correlations				
Perceived Success	—	—	-.460***	—
Job Title	—	-.298**	-.480***	—
# Promotions	—	-.297**	-.463***	—
Responsibility	—	-.300**	-.454***	—
Income	—	-.296**	-.475***	—
<b>High Work Role Salience</b>				
Zero Order Correlations	-.286**	-.374***	-.455***	-.354***
Partial Correlations				
Perceived Success	—	—	-.331**	—
Job Title	-.287**	-.373***	-.460***	-.355***
# Promotions	-.281**	-.373***	-.444***	-.347**
Responsibility	-.274**	-.404***	-.444***	-.317***
Income	-.313**	-.370***	-.462***	-.366***

<sup>^</sup> There were no significant correlations between Congruency and Well-Being in the Low Work Role Salience category.

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

APPENDIX F: RESULTS OF NONPARAMETRIC HYPOTHESES TESTS

Table F1. Summary Results of Spearman Rank Correlations Between Work Success and Well-Being Across Congruency Levels. (Hypothesis 1)

<u>Work Success/</u>	<u>W.B.Affective</u>	<u>W.B.Cognitive</u>	<u>General W.B.Cognitive</u>	<u>General W.B.Affective</u>
<u>Overall Correlations</u>				
Perceived Success	.414***	.344***	.466***	.419***
Income Level	.138**	—	.142**	.101*
<u>High Congruency</u>				
Perceived Success	.478***	.334***	.416***	.345***
<u>Low Congruency</u>				
Perceived Success	.363***	.307***	.451***	.380***
<u>Insignificant Variables: Job Title, # Promotions, # Responsibility Changes.</u>				
* p < .05 ** p < .01 *** p < .001				

Table F2. Summary Results of Spearman Rank Correlations Between Congruency and Well-Being Across Work Success Levels (Hypothesis 2)

<u>Congruency/</u>	<u>W.B.Affective</u>	<u>W.B.Cognitive</u>	<u>General W.B.Cognitive</u>	<u>General W.B.Affective</u>
Overall Correlation	—	-.283*	-.396**	—
<u>Low Perceived Success</u>				
Congruency	—	—	-.172*	—
<u>High Perceived Success</u>				
Congruency	—	-.197*	-.334***	-.266**
<u>Low # Promotions</u>				
Congruency	—	-.217*	-.325**	-.276**
<u>Medium # Promotions</u>				
Congruency	—	-.160*	-.255***	-.207**
<u>High # Promotions</u>				
Congruency	—	-.283*	-.396**	—
<u>Low Income</u>				
Congruency	—	-.186**	-.292***	-.215**
<u>High Income</u>				
Congruency	—	-.193*	-.328***	-.236**
<u>Insignificant Variables: Job Title, # Responsibility Changes.</u>				
* p < .05 ** p < .01 *** p < .001				

Table F3. Summary Results for Males and Females of the Spearman Rank Correlations Between Work Success and Well-Being Across Congruency Levels. (Hypothesis 4)

<u>Work Success/</u>	<u>W.B.Affective</u>	<u>W.B.Cognitive</u>	<u>General W.B.Cognitive</u>	<u>General W.B.Affective</u>
<u>Overall Correlations</u>				
Females: Job Title	.172*	.168*	—	—
Perceived Success	.271***	.170 *	.354***	.321***
Males: Income Level	.204**	—	.122*	.152*
Perceived Success	.507***	.486***	.541***	.489***
<u>High Congruency</u>				
Females	—	—	—	—
Males: Perc. Success	.5697***	.345**	.541***	.290***
<u>Medium-High Congruency</u>				
Females: Job Title	.288*	—	—	—
Income	—	—	—	.348*
Perceived Success	—	.300*	.435**	.461**
Males: Perc. Success	.570***	.345**	.359**	.290*
<u>Medium-Low Congruency</u>				
Females: # Promotions	—	.476*	.477*	—
Income Level	—	—	.519***	.359*
Perceived Success	.390*	—	—	—
Males: Responsibility	.311*	.335*	.329*	—
Perceived Success	.368*	—	.332*	—
<u>Low Congruency</u>				
Females: Perc. Success	—	—	.340*	.291*
Males: Income Level	.393**	—	—	—
Perceived Success	.498***	.644***	.703***	.625***
* p< .05 ** p< .01 *** p< .001				

Table F4. Summary Results of Significant Spearman Rank Correlations for Males and Females  
 Between Congruency and Well-Being Across Work Success Levels. (Hypothesis 4)

Congruency/	W.B. Affective	W.B. Cognitive	General W.B. Cognitive	General W.B. Affective
<b>Overall Correlations</b>				
Females	-.187*	-.252**	-.475***	-.332***
Males	—	-.168*	-.214**	-.163*
<b>Low-Perceived Success</b>				
Females	—	—	-.423***	—
<b>Medium-Perceived Success</b>				
Females	—	-.333*	-.436***	-.340**
Males	—	-.266*	-.315**	-.276*
<b>Low-# Promotions</b>				
Females	—	—	-.601**	—
Males	—	-.248*	—	-.237*
<b>Medium # Promotions</b>				
Females	—	-.334**	-.413***	-.350**
<b>High-# Promotions</b>				
Females	—	—	-.510***	-.357*
Males	—	-.388*	-.314*	—
<b>Low-Income</b>				
Females	-.503*	—	-.605**	—
Males	—	—	-.249*	—
<b>Medium-Low Income</b>				
Females	—	—	-.615**	-.421*
<b>Medium-High Income</b>				
Females	—	—	-.482**	-.479**
Males	—	—	—	-.292*
<b>High Income</b>				
Females	—	—	-.280*	—
Males	—	—	-.447*	—

\*p < .05 \*\* p < .01 \*\*\* p < .001

Table F5. Summary Results of Significant Spearman Rank Correlations Between Work Success and Well-being Across Negative Affectivity Levels. (Hypothesis 6a)

Work Success/	W.B. Affective	W.B. Cognitive	General W.B. Cognitive	General W.B. Affective
<u>Low Negative Affectivity</u>				
Perceived Success	.450***	.424***	.586***	.485***
<u>Medium Low Negative Affectivity</u>				
Perceived Success	.327**	.247*	.390***	.384***
<u>Medium High Negative Affectivity</u>				
Perceived Success	—	—	-.259**	-.221*
<u>High Negative Affectivity</u>				
Perceived Success	.249**	.262**	.317**	.330***
<u>Insignificant Variables: Job Title, # Promotions, # Responsibility Changes, Income Level</u>				
* p < .05 ** p < .01 *** p < .001				

Table F6. Summary Results of Significant Spearman Rank Correlations Between Congruency and Well-Being Across Negative Affectivity Levels. (Hypothesis 6b)

Congruency/	W.B. Affective	W.B. Cognitive	General W.B. Cognitive	General W.B. Affective
<u>Low Negative Affectivity</u>				
Congruency	—	—	-.241*	—
<u>Medium Negative Affectivity</u>				
Congruency	—	—	-.221*	—
<u>High Negative Affectivity</u>				
Congruency	—	-.219*	-.370***	-.358***
* p < .05 ** p < .01 *** p < .001				

Table F7. Summary Results of Significant Spearman Rank Correlations Between Work Success and Well-Being, Across Work Role Salience Levels. (Hypothesis 7a)

Work Success/	W.B. Affective	W.B. Cognitive	General W.B. Cognitive	General W.B. Affective
<u>Low Work Role Salience</u>				
Perceived Success	.532***	.425***	.499***	.492***
<u>Medium Low Work Role Salience</u>				
Perceived Success	.434***	.296***	.414***	.403***
Job Title	.242*	—	.214*	.215*
Income	—	—	—	.209*
<u>Medium High Work Role Salience</u>				
Perceived Success	.443***	.284***	.317**	.304**
# Promotions	-.222*	—	—	—
Income	.199*	—	.222*	—
<u>High Work Role Salience</u>				
Perceived Success	.363***	.399***	.563***	.483***
# Promotions	—	—	-.195*	—
Responsibility	—	.195*	.202*	—
Income	.272*	—	—	—

\* p < .05 \*\* p < .01 \*\*\* p < .001

Table F8. Summary Results of Significant Spearman Rank Correlations Between Congruency and Well-Being, Across Work Role Salience Levels. (Hypothesis 7b)

Congruency/	W.B. Affective	W.B. Cognitive	General W.B. Cognitive	General W.B. Affective
<u>Low Work Role Salience</u>				
Congruency	—	—	-.215*	-.236*
<u>Medium Work Role Salience</u>				
Congruency	—	—	-.364**	—
<u>High Work Role Salience</u>				
Congruency	-.279**	-.331***	-.479***	-.369***

\* p < .05 \*\* p < .01 \*\*\* p < .001

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